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ABSTRACT

This is the fourth in a continuing series of bulletins dealing with international approaches and problems in language instruction in the military. Articles contained in this volume include: (1) "Drill Materials for Advanced Students," (2) "Comment un aveugle peut apprendre une langue etrangere"/"How a Blind Man Can Learn a Foreign Language," (3) "Recent Trends in Foreign Language Teaching: A Survey and Critique," (4) "Echelons of Managerial Linguistics," and (5) "Evaluation of Language Training Objectives." Article 2 is in both French and English; the other articles are in English with resumes in French; and Articles 3, 4 and 5 contain references or bibliographies. (RL)

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EDITORIAL

The fourth issue of the BILC Bulletin is produced in a slightly different form from its predecessors (you will notice the different print in this issue) as a result of the technical arrangements at the printing installation at Mannheim. It is appropriate here to express, on behalf of all the other BILC members, our thanks for the generosity and co-operation of the Bundessprachenamt in printing and distributing the Bulletin each year.

The presentation at the BILC 1970 Conference by Professor Titone: "Recent Trends in Foreign Language Teaching" was so erudite and aroused so much interest that it is reproduced in full in this edition.

This issue also marks a change of editor. Lieutenant Colonel K. E. Collins has now taken over from Lieutenant Colonel C. C. Wardle, who has recently been appointed Commandant of the Higher Education Centre Germany. We welcome Colonel Collins, and extend our good wishes to Colonel Wardle for a happy and successful tour in Germany.

Le quatrième numéro du Bulletin du Bureau de coordination linguistique internationale paraît sous une présentation différant légèrement de celle des numéros précédents. Vous noterez en effet le changement des caractères d'imprimerie qui a été rendu possible grâce à l'acquisition de nouveaux équipements à l'imprimerie de Mannheim. Il est approprié à ce moment d'exprimer, au nom des autres nations membres du BILC, nos remerciements pour la générosité et la coopération du Bundessprachenamt, qui imprime et distribue le Bulletin chaque année.

Le discours qu'a prononcé le professeur Titone devant la Réunion 1970 du BILC et intitulé "Tendances récentes de l'enseignement de langues étrangères" était tellement érudit et a suscité un tel intérêt qu'il est reproduit en entier dans ce numéro.

Nous devons signaler ici encore un changement de rédacteur. Le lieutenant colonel K. E. Collins a pris la succession du lieutenant colonel C. C. Wardle, qui vient d'être nommé Commandant du "Higher Education Centre Germany". Nous souhaitons la bienvenue au colonel Collins, et nous transmettons nos meilleurs voeux au colonel Wardle pour un tour de service heureux et couronné de succès en Allemagne.

Federal Republic of Germany

Drill Materials for Advanced Students

The movement away from pure behaviourism in language teaching has inevitably brought demands for new teaching materials and particularly for new drill materials. Coincident with this rethinking of the philosophy of language learning and thus of language teaching, comes the boom in "language laboratories" and the need to produce materials which can usefully be employed in them. Much of the drill material which has been and is being produced for use in the classroom and/or language laboratory has been evolved on an extreme interpretation of the behaviourist position. Fear that the learner will make mistakes leads to the stimulus being so heavily cued that the response is more or less a repetition of the stimulus -- or, alternatively, the relationship between stimulus and response is such that the stimulus has no more relevance to the behaviour which it evokes than the flashing lights or ringing bells in the classical conditioning experiments.

Language laboratory exercises of the sort:

S: Where's your key? In your pocket?
R: Yes, it's here, in my pocket.
S: Where's your pen? On your desk?
R: Yes, it's here, on my desk.
S: Where's your book? In your bag?
R: Yes, it's here, in my bag.
S: Where's your cup? On your table?
R: Yes, it's here, on my table.

are completely soluble without any reference to the first part of the stimulus "Where's your X? ". All that is relevant is the prepositional phrase, and even this is not semantically significant.

S: Where's your ping? On your pong?
R: Yes, it's here, on my pong.

It is difficult to see what an exercise of this sort is intended to do. Or consider the following:

S: Can I have some more tea please?
R: Yes, if there's any left, you can have some more.
S: Can I have some more porridge please?
R: Yes, if there's any left, you can have some more.
S: Can I have some more toast please?
R: Yes, if there's any left, you can have some more.
etc.

Here, the stimulus is completely irrelevant -- a gong tone would achieve the same result.

There is, too, a disturbing tendency to ignore the realities of language in the construction of language laboratory exercise materials, thus producing something which has the appearance of a dialogue, but which is unrealistic and worthless to the learner.

Example

S: My mother buys a dress.
R: My mother bought two dresses.
S: My mother buys a knife.
R: My mother bought two knives.
S: My mother buys a cake.
R: My mother bought two cakes.
etc.

Material of this sort places the purely mechanical functioning of the drill in the foreground. The desire to avoid the possibility of the learner making mistakes leads to dialogues which are completely unrealistic, to utterances in the stimuli which are inconceivable, and to responses which are completely unmotivated by anything other than the requirements of the drill. Further, it may well lead to the frustrating state of affairs in which the learner finds that he is able to "do the drill" without knowing what he is talking about.

From the foregoing it would appear that there are four major criteria which drill material should satisfy.

Criteria

1. The stimulus-response relationship should either be a normal piece of dialogue, or it should be clearly recognisable to the learner as artificial (e.g. substitution drill).

2. The stimulus should be easily contextualisable, i.e., the learner should easily be able to visualise a situation in which it might be uttered.

3. There should be a cognitive element in the stimulus-response cycle, i.e., a satisfactory solution can only be produced if the learner has understood the stimulus.

4. The structural elements of the response should be controlled, and any transformations should be motivated.

The need then, it would appear, is for materials in which significant stimuli produce structurally controlled responses which are semantically appropriate.

The demand for semantic appropriateness brings problems with it. As soon as drill material becomes meaningful, the problem of response control becomes acute. It might be more appropriate to talk of "guidance" rather than control.

The remainder of this article will concern itself with suggestions as to ways in which this cognitive element may be introduced into exercises, and at the same time, the guidance mentioned above be provided.

Collocations

Here we are concerned with the company which words keep – which nouns are to be found in company with which verbs – which verbs combine with which prepositions – what associations are produced by the mention of trades, professions, institutions and so on. In fact, most of the suggestions made here, not only under this heading, but under the others which follow are variations of collocability.

Example 1

S: Will you *post this letter* for me?
R: Yes. If you give me a *stamp*, I'll post it for you.
S: Why didn't you *open the bottle of wine* for me?
R: If you had given me a *corkscrew*, I'd have opened it for you.
S: Why didn't you *carve the meat* for me?
R: If you had given me a *knife*, I'd have carved it for you.
S: Will you *sign this letter* for me?
R: Yes. If you give me a *pen*, I'll sign it for you.

Example 2

S: He's worrying.
R: Is he? Just what's he *worrying about?*
S: He's applied.
R: Has he? Just what's he *applied for?*
S: He insists.
R: Does he? Just what's he *insist on?*
S: He's agreed.
R: Has he? Just what's he *agreed to?*
etc.

Here the learner's response contains a full phonological realisation (which is fully controlled by the form of the full verb in the stimulus) of the weak form ('s) and the production of the collocations "to worry about" etc. If he does not know these collocations, the drill will teach them to him.

Example 3

S: I went to a friend about a *loan.*
R: Wouldn't it have been better if you'd gone to the *bank?*
S: I'm going to a doctor about my *teeth.*
R: Wouldn't it be better if you went to the *dentist?*
S: I'm going to the supermarket to buy *some meat.*
R: Wouldn't it be better if you went to the *butcher?*
S: I went to the pet shop about my *sick dog.*
R: Wouldn't it have been better if you'd gone to the *vet?*

Here again, the signals are both structural and semantic.

Synonyms

Example 4

S: Did he *recover* from his illness?
R: Yes, he *got over* it.
S: Did he *escape* punishment?
R: Yes, he *got away* with it.
S: Did he *avoid* the difficulty?
R: Yes, he *got round* it.
S: Did he *continue* the work?
R: Yes, he *got on* with it.

Antonyms

Example 5

S: Was the test *easy?*
R: No. I wish it hadn't been so *difficult.*
S: Is your holiday accommodation *cheap?*
R: No. I wish it weren't so *expensive.*
S: Is the water in the pool *warm?*
R: No. I wish it weren't so *cold.*
S: Was the waiting room *empty?*
R: No. I wish it hadn't been so *full.*
etc.

Complementary Processes

Example 6

S: Would you have *bought* his car?
R: Yes, if I had known he really wanted to *sell* it.
S: Would you *lend* him the money?
R: Yes, if I knew he really wanted to *borrow* it.
S: Would you have *rented* his house?
R: Yes, if I had known he really wanted to *let* it.
S: Would you *accept* his help?
R: Yes, if I knew he really wanted to *offer* it.
etc.

Cause and Effect

Certain states of affairs have natural, almost inevitable, consequences. This fact is made use of in exercises of this type:

S: What did you do about your *flat battery?*
R: I had it *charged* of course.
S: What are you going to do about your *long hair?*
R: I'm going to have it *cut* of course.

S: What did you do about your *broken windows?*
R: I had them *replaced* of course.
S: What are you going to do about your *aching tooth?*
R: I'm going to have it *treated* of course.
etc.

Classification

Here, the learner is required to associate the general with the specific in the formation of the response.

Example

S: Do you like the *Beethoven* record?
R: No. Beethoven is a *composer* who doesn't appeal to me.
S: Do you care for the *red* tie?
R: No. Red is a *colour* which doesn't appeal to me.
S: Do you like *Dickens'* books?
R: No. Dickens is an *author* who doesn't appeal to me.
S: Would you like a *beer?*
R: No. Beer is a *drink* which doesn't appeal to me.
etc.

General Knowledge

Here use is made of the general knowledge of the student. This, of course, raises the question of what general knowledge is – what the student can be expected to know, and what he may not know. Since all of these exercises are, to a certain extent, trial-and-error exercises, gaps in the student's knowledge do not have serious consequences when doing the exercises.

S: What do you know about Bleriot?
R: He was the first man to fly across the Channel.
S: What do you know about Al Jolson?
R: He was the first man to sing in a film.
S: What do you know about Edmund Hillary?
R: He was the first man to climb Mt. Everest.
S: What do you know about Neil Armstrong?
R: He was the first man to walk on the moon.

Knowledge of Environment

Example

S: I'm going to park my car on this zebra crossing.
R: You mustn't do that, it's forbidden.
S: I'm going to squeeze the tooth-paste back into the tube.
R: You can't do that, it's impossible.
S: I'm going to wear evening dress for the cocktail party.
R: You needn't do that, it's not necessary.

No attempt has been made in presenting these "tricks" to go into the teaching aims of the individual exercises. Suffice it to say that they all incorporate learning problems for those for whom they were designed – namely students whose native tongue is German. It is hoped that they may serve to suggest lines of approach to compilers of drill materials for students whose mother tongues confront them with other interference problems.

Résumé

Cet article plaide en faveur de la présence d'un facteur cognitif dans les exercices structuraux, et va jusqu'à avancer que beaucoup des exercices structuraux actuellement disponibles sont conçus de sorte qu'ils fonctionnent même si l'élève ne comprend pas le sens de la phrase. En outre, on constate que beaucoup de ces exercices ne tiennent pas compte des réalités du langage. Les exemples en anglais contenus dans cet article confirmeront cette assertion.

Lorsqu'on rassemble du matériel destiné à des exercices structuraux, il faudrait tenir compte des critères suivants:

1. L'ensemble "stimulus-reponse" devrait être un dialogue absolument naturel, ou alors devrait pouvoir être immédiatement reconnu comme artificiel.

2. Le stimulus devrait pouvoir facilement trouver place dans un contexte.

3. Les exercices structuraux ne devraient être pratiqués que lorsque l'élève en comprend le contenu sémantique.

4. La réponse – c.-a-d. les éléments structuraux qui la composent – devrait être guidée, et les transformations devraient être motivées.

A l'appui d'exemples en anglais on démontrera de quelle manière des collocations peuvent être employées pour guider les réponses.

France

Comment un aveugle peut apprendre une langue étrangère

par le

Capitaine Edouard Barbeaux
de l'Armée Française

Les aveugles ont prouvé depuis longtemps qu'ils pouvaient apprendre et exercer une profession (en particulier l'enseignement).

Il est toujours difficile de faire comprendre à ceux qui voient que les possibilités des aveugles sur le plan des études et de l'exercice d'une profession dépassent largement ce qu'ils soupçonnent.

Ceci est particulièrement vrai dans le domaine des langues où les aveugles peuvent compenser par des moyens techniques modernes le fait de ne pouvoir lire. Ainsi, le magnétophone leur permet de profiter au maximum de leurs facultés auditives rendues plus efficaces encore par une concentration que le manque de vision laisse intacte.

Officier parachutiste grièvement blessé en Algérie en 1962, je me retrouvai, en plus de nombreuses blessures, atteint de cécité complète. Pendant plusieurs années, une rééducation physique, rendue très longue par la diversité des blessures, me fut imposée. Pris ensuite en charge par l'Union des Aveugles de Guerre Français, j'appris bien vite que de grandes possibilités m'étaient offertes sur le plan professionnel grâce à une rééducation de base suivie d'une rééducation spécialisée. Avant toute chose: pouvoir lire. Grâce à la méthode BRAILLE; ce premier obstacle devait être très rapidement franchi. En outre, la dactylographie me permettait de communiquer presque normalement avec des voyants.

C'est à ce moment-là que je découvris les possibilités énormes qu'offrait le magnétophone. Et je dois avouer que, dès cet instant, le BRAILLE ne me servit que pour la rédaction et la lecture de quelques notes. La bande magnétique fut dès lors mon seul outil de travail. En effet, à l'issue de cette première phase de rééducation, j'avais décidé de me reconvertir en étudiant l'anglais, langue que je n'avais jamais pratiquée auparavant. C'est en commencant l'étude de l'anglais que je découvrais les multiples usages du magnétophone. Prenons le cas d'un cours destiné à des voyants: rien de plus simple que d'enregistrer ce cours dans sa totalite grâce à un magnétophone portatif. Non seulement vous possédez l'intégralité du cours, mais, pour un cours de langue, vous bénéficiez de la prononciation et de l'intonation.

Nombreux furent mes camarades voyants qui me demandèrent l'enregistrement du cours pour compléter leurs notes. Une discipline intellectuelle très stricte doit être cependant respectée: dès le début, chaque mot nouveau doit être épelé lors d'une reprise de la bande avec un aide voyant capable de donner l'orthographe exacte du mot. Toutes les

opérations suivantes exigeront l'emploi de deux magnétophones. Ainsi, pour apprendre une liste de 1700 mots exigés en d'anglais militaire, il suffira de prendre chaque mot français, de laisser donner la traduction en anglais. Cette bande sera la bande no 1 à conser te, apprendre cette liste de mots comme le ferait un voyant. Plus tard, éco nde, s'arrêter après chaque mot français. Si vous pouvez traduire ce mot sans faute, passez au suivant, sinon enregistrez le mot sur le magnétophone no 2. On conçoit aisément que la bande no 2 sera réduite de moitié. Si vous répétez l'opération plusieurs fois, à la veille de l'examen, vous n'aurez plus qu'une vingtaine de mots sur lesquels vous pourrez encore hésiter. Le même procédé peut être utilisé pour des phrases de grammaire, de versions, de thèmes. Là aussi, plusieurs de mes camarades voyants utilisèrent cette méthode avec succès.

Après avoir suivi 3 mois de cours au laboratoire de langues du Centre de Langues et Etudes Etrangères Militaires à Paris, basés sur l'utilisation de la cabine magnétique et de la méthode SHAPE, je fus reçu à l'Union des Aveugles de Guerre Anglais ou, avec très peu de vocabulaire, je comprenais et j'étais compris, car, comme un enfant, je ne faisais que restituer les phrases de la méthode.

Au cours des trois dernières années, j'ai suivi les cours d'anglais militaire à Paris normalement suivis par des voyants, et passé des examens correspondants.

Durant ces mêmes années, j'étais pensionnaire dans une famille anglaise, et je suivais des cours en Angleterre dans une école privée où je passais des examens intérieurs à l'école ainsi que le Lower Certificate of Cambridge et le Proficiency. Il est certain que, sans le magnétophone, et sans cette méthode de travail, j'aurais dû suivre des cours spéciaux pour aveugles qui n'existent pas pour adultes et, surtout, pour un renseignement aussi spécialisé que l'anglais militaire.

Au vu de ces résultats, le Commandement m'a maintenu dans l'Armée et me destine à l'enseignement de l'anglais. Pour passer de l'état de bon étudiant à celui de professeur d'anglais militaire spécialisé, il me suffira de séjourner assez longtemps en Angleterre pour connaître les subtilités de la langue. Une fois ce niveau atteint, aucun obstacle technique ne s'opposera à l'enseignement.

Plusieurs de mes camarades aveugles enseignent dans les lycées des disciplines littéraires, voire même les mathématiques. Apprendre une langue, surtout à l'échelon du spécialiste militaire, c'est avant tout la comprendre et la parler. Le professeur de langue devra donc s'appuyer sur ces 2 critères. Rien de plus facile que de préparer un cours sur bandes magnétiques, enregistrer le plan et les quelques notes que tout professeur voyant a devant lui pendant le cours, notes qui ne sont que le support directeur et que vous pouvez, à la rigueur, écouter en cas de besoin. S'orienter au maximum vers les interrogations orales, mais cela n'exclut aucunement des devoirs écrits qui seront corrigés grâce à la lecture qu'en fera un aide.

Si j'ai beaucoup insisté sur les aspects techniques du problème, vous concevez aisément que le fait de pouvoir coopérer, exercer une profession presque normalement, a été un facteur déterminant sur le plan du moral. Si les aveugles suscitent très facilement de la sympathie, il leur est beaucoup plus difficile d'obtenir de la considération.

La compétence dans un domaine spécialisé, mais accessible, permet aux aveugles de s'intégrer dans un cadre de travail normal et, ainsi, d'obtenir cette considération recherchée.

How a Blind Man Can Learn a Foreign Language

by
Captain Edouard Barbeaux, French Army

Blind people have been able to prove for a long time now that they can learn and carry on a profession, particularly teaching.

It is always difficult to make those who can see understand that the possibilities of the blind in the field of studies and carrying on a profession are far greater than the former ever suspect.

This is particularly true in the language field, where the blind can compensate by modern technical means for the fact that they cannot read. Thus, the tape-recorder enables them to exploit to the full their auditive faculties, which have been made even more effective by concentration, which the lack of sight leaves intact.

As a parachute officer, I was seriously wounded in Algeria in 1962, and found myself stricken not only with numerous wounds, but also with complete blindness. For several years I had to undergo physical reeducation, which was made very long drawn-out by the diversity of my wounds. I was then taken over by the Union of French War Blinded, and learned very quickly that great possibilities were offered to me in the professional field thanks to a basic reeducation followed by a specialised reeducation. First of all: be able to read. Thanks to the Braille method, this first obstacle was rapidly overcome. Furthermore, typing enabled me to communicate almost normally with sighted people.

It was at that moment that I discovered the enormous possibilities offered by the tape-recorder. And I must confess that, from that time on, I only used Braille for editing and reading some notes. The magnetic tape then became my only working tool. In fact, at the conclusion of this first phase of reeducation, I had decided to reconvert by studying English, a language which I had never used before. When I began the study of English, I began to discover the multiple uses of the tape-recorder. Let us take the case of a course intended for seeing people: there is nothing more simple than to record this course in its entirety on a portable tape-recorder. Not only do you then possess the course in its entirety, but, for a language course you profit by the pronunciation and intonation.

Many friends who could see asked me for the recording of the course to complete their notes. However, a very strict intellectual discipline must be observed: right from the start, each new word must be spelled out during a replay of the tape by a seeing assistant capable of giving the exact spelling of the word. All the following operations require the use of two tape-recorders. So, to learn a list of 1700 words required for an examination in military English, it is enough to take each French word, leave a space, and give a translation in English. This tape will be tape No. 1 to keep. Then you learn this list of words as a seeing person would. Later, listen to this tape, stop after each French word. If you can translate this word correctly, pass on to the following word; if not, record the word on recorder No. 2. It will clearly be seen that tape 2 will be reduced by half. If you repeat the operation several times the day before the examination, you will be left with only a score of words on which you still hesitate. The same procedure can be used for grammatical phrases, and for translations and compositions. There, too, many of my sighted comrades used this method with success.

After taking three months of language lab courses at the Centre for Foreign Languages and Military Studies in Paris, based on the use of the lab booth and the SHAPE method, I was admitted to the St. Dunstan's Society (the British War-Blinded Society), where, with very little vocabulary, I understood and was understood, because, like a child, I was simply rebuilding the phrases of the method.

During ... three years, I took in Paris the military English courses normally taken by seeing person ...nd sat the corresponding examinations.

During these same years, I boarded with an English family and took courses in England at a private school, where I sat the internal school examinations, and also the Lower Certificate of Cambridge, and the Proficiency. It is certain that, without the tape-recorder and without this method of work, I would have had to attend special courses for the blind — which do not exist for adults, and especially not for such a specialised subject as military English.

On seeing these results, Command kept me on in the army and intends me to teach English. To pass over from the stage of Good Student to that of Teacher of Specialised Military English, I shall have to stay a sufficient length of time in England to get to know the subtleties of the language. Once this level has been reached, there is no technical obstacle in the way of teaching.

Many of my blind friends are teaching literary subjects, and even mathematics, in high schools. Learning a language, expecially at military specialist level, means above all understanding and speaking it. The language teacher will therefore have to base himself on these two criteria. There is nothing easier than to prepare a course on tape, record the plan and the few notes which every seeing teacher has before him during his classes — notes which are only there as a help and a lead, and which, if you have to, you can listen to in case of need. You direct your maximum efforts towards oral interrogation, but that in no way excludes written work, which can be corrected by the help of readings by an assistant.

I have insisted a lot on the technical aspects of the problem, so you can easily imagine that the fact of being able to cooperate, carry on a profession almost normally, has been a determining factor on morale. Although blind people very easily arouse sympathy, it is much more difficult for them to obtain consideration.

Competence in a specialised but accessible field permits the blind to integrate into a normal working pattern and thus to obtain this consideration which is so sought after.

Italy

Recent Trends in Foreign Language Teaching: A Survey and Critique

by Renzo Titone, Ph.D.
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Georgetown University, Washington, D.C.

Summary

1. The renewal of foreign language teaching methods today is based on scientific investigation energetically applied to eradicating old errors, on a psychological approach linked with linguistic research and theory, on the aid of new electronic devices.

2. The reform movement, previously limited to few countries and to few selected circles in each country, has spread all over the western and eastern world. One sign of this universality is the rapid emerging of national and international organizations and the frequency of conference meetings on an international scale dealing with the problems of modern language teaching. The movement has acquired a geographical dimension which almost equals the interest in the physical and mathematical sciences.

3. The situation can be better assessed by comparing the methods commonly used in today's language schools.

(a) Methods belonging to the "formal approach", like the grammar-translation and the reading methods, are gradually superseded by more active ways of teaching languages.

(b) Most of today's methods can be classified as instances of the "functional approach". Functionally oriented are such methods as the direct methods (a large variety including the Berlitz Method, the Eclectic Direct Method of the British tradition, the Simplification Methods like Basic English or the Graded-Direct Method), the intensive methods, the audio-visual methods, the audio-lingual method, etc. Their aim is mostly practical: they tend to teach the language as a living tool for communication.

(c) The newest direction, and the most scientific one is represented by the "integrated approach". Both theory and teaching experience converge to show that the complexity of the teaching process can be met with varying, flexible, adaptable, many-sided procedures only. A comprehensive philosophy and psychology of language learning point to the necessity of postulating a multi-dimensional approach and, accordingly, of keeping methodological programming ever open to new adaptations and contributions from various provinces of theory and research.

4. The "integrated methodologist" (3.c) is witnessing several characteristic phenomena in the field of language teaching:

(a) an increasing emphasis on experimental research as the ultimate test of methodological validity (application of research techniques);

(b) the quest for more adequate psychological explanations of the language learning process (appeal to psycholinguistics);

(c) the crisis of grammar (rejection of the teaching of formal grammar);

(d) the recapturing of the "situational" principle as a reaction to a mechanistic idea of pattern practice (the context of situation as a sign of communicative authenticity).

5. In order to bring language teaching to a higher degree of efficiency, a plea for more scientific research ought to be made. However, research in language teaching methodology can be of real use only if certain conditions and requirements are kept in mind.

(a) Research and experimentation require clear vision and formulation not only of the problems, but also of the hypotheses relative to better ways of teaching languages. This calls for better founded and developed theoretical bases than those to be found at the starting point of much present research. Moreover, language teaching methodology demands more mature contributions from the psychology of language learning. While, therefore, it is necessary to encourage the experimenters, it is equally necessary to encourage the theoreticians of language learning.

(b) More than laboratory experimentation — a well programmed series of operational researches is needed, which should be conducted in normal classroom situations, with the participation of language teachers and under the direction of experts who have an adequate control of the techniques of scientific investigation and at the same time are sensitive to the real problems of actual teaching. Therefore, the science of language teaching on the one hand and the improvement of practical procedures on the other depend mainly on the parallel fulfilment of two fundamental requirements: namely, interdisciplinary solidarity and enlightened realism.

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1. It is a historical paradox that a World War has succeeded in bringing home to many people the realization of the wide-spread need for oral communication and international understanding. The exceptionally rapid development of foreign language teaching methods since 1945 is partly due to this realization. The pre-war stagnant situation has been completely dissolved. Never was the interest in learning foreign languages so intense and so wide-spread as today. International communication has been one of the main propulsive factors, but other contributing factors have come to enhance such development. "What is new in recent approaches to languageteaching", writes R. Libbish, "is not the recognition of past errors. It has long been realized that translation develops into a habit, difficult to uproot; and that the speech of most of our pupils has degenerated into a more or less rapid and incorrect process of translation. It was almost true to say that foreign texts were understood less through their own idiom, than through interpretation via the mother tongue. What is new is that, for the first time, scientific investigation has been energetically applied to eradicating these errors, and to substituting in their place a psychological approach linked with linguistic research, and aided by new electronic devices"/1/.

The world of language teaching is so fervent with new initiatives and experiments that it would be very difficult for any historian to size up each component of the present-day situation. Only an over-all survey, leaving out a number of interesting details, seems feasible in the way of a general estimate. This will be the aim of my report.

The reform movement, previously limited to few countries and to few selected circles in each country, has spread all over the western and eastern world. One sign of this universality is the rapid emerging of international organizations and the frequency of conference meetings on an international scale dealing with the problems of modern language teaching.

But more significant is the fact of a renewed fervour in the search for more effective methods and a more critical attitude on the part of language teachers. With the acceptance of newer trends in teaching the older ones have not disappeared, although today it is possible to speak of certain gradually prevailing trends. These, to mention only two outstanding ones, might be (1) a tendency toward the integration of multiple features into an eclectic type of methodology, and (2) the growing interest in experimental research applied to language teaching procedures.

2. As a guide to the complexity of contemporary trends the following tentative classification of methods may be offered:

A Classification of Existing FL Teaching Methods

1.0 The Formal Approach
- 1.1 Grammar-translation method
- 1.2 Reading method

2.0 The Functional Approach
- 2.1 Direct methods
- 2.1.1 The Berlitz Method
- 2.1.2 The Eclectic Direct Method
- 2.1.3 The Simplification Methods
- 2.1.3.1 Basic English
- 2.1.3.2 The Graded-Direct Method
- 2.2 Intensive Method
- 2.3 Audio-visual (Intuitive) Method
- 2.4 Linguistic Method
- 2.5 Audio-lingual (Aural-oral) Method

3.0 The Integrated Approach
- 3.1 Functionally eclectic methodology (Multiple approach)
- 3.2 Scientific integrated approach

1.0 The Formal Approach. What has been called "classical" or "traditional" method is mostly just a conventional routine devoid of theoretical background and based on the experience or on the so-called "common sense" of the individual teacher. It does not

deserve the qualification either of "classical" or of "traditional", taking these terms in their more positive connotation. It is not the former, for "classical" would imply reference to an ideal standard, whereas this routine is entirely worthless; it is not the latter, for "traditional" supposes a long-standing acceptation, while this practice dates at most as far back as the beginning of the past century. Such an approach includes those varieties of teaching procedures that at large proceed from the abstract study of grammar rules to their application through translation. Its "formalism" depends, therefore, on the accepted practice of abstracting from concrete living language while submitting it to conceptual anatomy. It may also be called an "informative approach" (I. Morris), because it tends to impart knowledge or information about the language without caring about the practical mastery of the language. This approach, not being really concerned with living language, makes no attempt to teach pronunciation beyond an introductory lesson or two in which the foreign speech sounds are as nearly as possible equated whith those of the learner's native language.

The formal approach finds its application mainly in two varieties of method. (1) The commonly called *grammar-translation method* is far detached from actual speech being concerned exclusively with the general rules that govern the written language and basing all practice merely on the exercise of translation from and into the foreign language. (2) *The reading method* deals with the language itself but it grants overly consideration, time, and effort to decoding the written language on the basis of grammar and analytic translation. Therefore, most of the critical remarks levelled aginst the former apply almost entirely to the latter.

There is abundant evidence accumulated through over a century of teaching that the formal methods cannot produce complete language mastery. However, a more detailed critique might not be entirely inappropriate here since a growing number of language teachers are becoming increasingly critical.

A few remarks may suffice.

(1) No selection is usually made of *useful* linguistic materials to be incorporated in the texts. The beginning lessons may be designed to train the students to read the classics in the foreign language by including archaic words, rare literary expressions, stylistic tricks and all. Lack of selection and gradation will result in amount and complexity of structure and vocabulary puzzling the student and killing his motivation from the very first steps.

(2) The way the *vocabulary* is taught usually presents special difficulties to the beginner. First of all, no scientific choice of words is made based on frequency counts, cognates, or on practical utility. The words that happen to be in the selection from the classics, or which are used in sentences to illustrate the grammatical rules, are listed and memorized as individual units, or, in the worst case, they are met and dropped from memory on account of their excessive number. Secondly, the teaching procedure is inadequate. Sometimes, as many as 30 new words may be given in one lesson. Furthermore, no attempt is made to recall and drill these words in the following lessons; and teaching them in lists out of context makes retention almost impossible. No wonder the student feels lost in a welter of unclassified material.

(3) No better fares the teaching of *grammar*, although it is expected to be the strong point of the method. Generally, it is traditional grammar derived from Latin and based on unscientific and artificial rules and classifications which are not applicable to modern

languages. Grammar is taught abstractly, analytically, and deductively, even to young students who still feel insecure in the logical processes of abstraction and deduction. As a consequence, no transfer of training takes place between theory and practice, no vital incorporation of rules into patterns operating at the peripheral level of language encoding and decoding.

In conclusion, there is no possible justification, whether theoretical or practical, for adopting the formal approach, even when granted that a mere reading knowledge of the foreign language may become an acceptable objective of instruction. The formal methods teach not the language, but *about* the language, and generally by perpetuating traditional fallacies and presenting numerous pitfalls. They are not useful for learning the spoken language, and hardly justifiable for teaching the written language. A strictly theoretical grammatical method could be accepted only on a very advanced level of linguistic study, with students who have already attained practical mastery of the language and whose purpose may be theoretical competence.

2.0 The Functional Approach. The role of any functional method is the practical one of leading to the mastery of living language, especially in its oral form. Its typical procedures are *functionally bent* to the aim of bringing the learner in direct contact with the oral language. The *functional character*, therefore, lies in that these methods are aimed directly at handling the language and mastering it practically in meaningful communication situations. The classification suggested here is based on the specific emphasis placed by each method on certain particular features of the language learning process.

2.1 The Direct Methods. The qualification of "directness" refers to the fact that all these methods are based on *immediate contact* between the learner and the foreign language without using the learner's own language and without the intermediary of theory. Following is a representative list of "direct methods".

2.1.1 The Berlitz Method. The B.M. is certainly one of the earliest and most publicized examples of the direct method. Maximilian Berlitz (born in Poland in 1852) founded his first school in New York City with an essentially practical purpose, namely teaching the basic tools for oral communication. This explains the exclusive stress on the oral form of the language. Some of the salient characteristics are universally known. The teachers are native speakers of the language. Instruction is either individual or directed to small classes (never more than ten pupils). Following are the main principles of the B.M. /2/.

(1) Direct association of the foreign speech with the learner's thought: he must learn as soon as possible to "think in the foreign language".

(2) Constant use of the foreign language without ever using the learner's own language.

Consequently, concrete vocabulary will be taught through object lessons. Abstract words will be taught by association of ideas. Grammar will be conveyed to the pupil merely by example and ocular demonstration. The beginning is always oral based on listening and repeating. Words are always presented in sentences, like "What's this? " — "It's a pencil". The oral drill demands that the native teacher should be a fluent and correct speaker, that the classes be small and that a great deal of class work should be devoted to it from the beginning (at least 5 hours a week).

Here is a summary of typical procedures employed in any Berlitz School /3/.

General Procedure:

1. Oral from first lesson to lesson on the alphabet (inclusive)
2. Read from first lesson (with teacher interspersing questions) to lesson on alphabet.
3. Each subsequent lesson: first oral until well assimilated, then read (by student).
4. Oral reviews ... /4/.

Oral Procedure: These are some important pointers:
Never translate: demonstrate.
Never explain: act.
Never make a speech: ask questions.
Never imitate mistakes: correct.
Never speak with single words: use sentences.
Never speak too much: make student speak much.
Never use the book: use your lesson plan.
Never jump around: follow your plan.
Never go too fast: keep the pace of the student.
Never speak too slowly: speak normally.
Never speak too quickly: speak naturally.
Never speak too loudly: speak naturally.
Never be impatient: take it easy.

Reading Procedure:

Student reads aloud; teacher corrects mistakes, then has student repeat entire sentence.

Upon completion of the lesson, teacher asks five questions; student answers.

Student then asks five (or more) questions on the lesson and teacher answers /5/.

The B.M. tolerates no use of the native language, no translation, no grammar rules; reading and writing should come only after the student has attained mastery of speech.

A few comments are in order.

(a) The B.M. represents a great advance over the formal methods by placing a great emphasis on drill in aural understanding and speaking. Certainly, a good foundation in the spoken language makes successive learning of reading and writing more easy and thorough. And special attention is accorded to the psychological aspects of teaching /6/.

(b) The dangers, I believe, are more on the part of the uncautious teacher than on the part of the method itself. The teacher may waste time sometimes by not using the learner's language when useful and advisable. He may overemphasize concrete meanings by sticking to concrete material, which of course is the only one directly demonstrable. He can fail to grade the language material properly when overstressing the principle of ocular demonstrability, for demonstrable material may not always be the easiest in pronunciation or grammatical form. Finally, the teacher, by using conversation as a dominant form of teaching, can be induced to present too many different forms at once without realizing that they are different and difficult to the ordinary student.

However, it is undoubtedly possible for the B.M. to avoid these pitfalls by a careful selection and gradation of the language material and by imparting the Berlitz teacher a sense of moderation /7/.

2.1.2 The Eclectic Direct Method. This is usually associated with a group of British teaching experts who worked chiefly on the teaching of English as a foreign language largely in the Orient and lately in Britain. Their names deserve to be mentioned. Among the more commonly known are: Harold E. Palmer, Michael West /8/, Lawrence Faucett /9/, H.B. Drake /10/, I. Morris /11/, J.O. Gauntlett /12/.

This methodological concept was largely based on the results of practical experience, but it also included more scientific traits like a more accurate analysis of the linguistic material and the consideration of some suggestions from educational psychology. It is due to the efforts of these teachers that progress in foreign language teaching could be made during the years 1920 – 1935 /13/.

Their work was carried on mainly along three lines: pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar. Of course, the pronunciation material used in their textbooks was prepared before the recent work on the application of phonemics (Pike, Smith and Trager) to the teaching of foreign languages. Using Daniel Jones' analysis of English phonetics as a foundation, these teachers worked out explanations, drills on special difficulties for different language groups, pronouncing dictionaries, gramophone records, etc. /14/. For instance, some pronunciation drills, like Faucett's, can still be useful in ordinary practice, but his systems of marking regular English spelling for pronunciation, invented by Sir William Craigie, seems too elaborate to be practical in teaching. The utility of Palmer's work on intonation is also well known.

Secondly, basing their teaching mostly on reading, careful selection and grading of vocabulary materials according to frequency and usefulness in usage were to be made. Word counts, limited and functional vocabularies were then prepared for this purpose /15/, and reading books were compiled within these vocabularies /16/. The same principle was followed in building conversation courses.

In the third place, grammar was brought back to the classroom. These men, otherwise than the pure "direct-methodists", recognized the usefulness and even the necessity of presenting some sort of grammar to their pupils for more effective learning of the language. But it was not to be any longer the old traditional and formal type of grammar, which had caused difficulties to many teachers and students of foreign languages. Consequently, they were led to do a great deal of work on the analysis of the language, in this case English from a functional point of view; this they called "living English grammar" /17/.

Success attained by these methodologists was remarkable due especially to well prepared teachers and good textbooks /18/. However, the application of a not scientifically validated type of linguistics, ignorance of phonemics, grammar analyzed promiscuously both through meaning and form, some occasional exaggeration in teaching on the production level without insisting enough on basic patterns, represent some weaknesses in the method that may have impaired its efficiency.

2.1.3 **The Simplification Methods** /19/. These methods are based on the limitation and selection of lexical and structural items so as to ensure a rapid and substantial mastery of

the essentials of the language. Under this category two forms of teaching methods can be included: Basic English and the Graded-Direct Method.

2.1.3.1 Basic English /20/. The prominent aspect of B.E. is the limitation of the English vocabulary to a body of 850 words. These can be made to express all kinds of meanings by properly combining them /21/.

B.E. claims to have three uses: (1) as a possible universal language; (2) as a means of simplifying and clarifying obscure or elaborate English prose or poetry, or as a means of translating from foreign language into English; (3) as a method of teaching English as a foreign language. The third objective seems to have been more commonly referred to.

Besides building a basic vocabulary, B.E. has developed also a few practical procedures of teaching. Nothing new, indeed, has been introduced in the teaching of pronunciation, which is conveyed by the usual ways of imitation and description of sounds on the basis of D. Jones' analysis. But in teaching vocabulary and grammar the learner's language can be used. Besides, the interesting point is that words and structures are supposed to be introduced according to carefully regulated procedural steps, and words are to be presented always in structures. To get an idea of how Basic reduces linguistic material it is sufficient to notice that in its system only 16 verbs and 2 auxiliaries are kept, the former being: *be, come, do, get, give, go, have, keep, let, make, put, take, say, see, send, seem;* and the latter: *will, may* (plus the auxiliary use of *be, have, do).*

The method makes use of a wide range of reading material for further practice. Finally, when transition from Basic to full English is called for, the new vocabulary needed will be suggested by the particular situation and will be provided by a *General Basic English Dictionary* which includes some 20,000 non-Basic words explained in Basic.

Commenting now on the value of B.E. as a method of teaching, one has to acknowledge undoubtful merits. The material is carefully selected according to a definite principle. The structures are presented according to the concrete categories of living English, not according to traditional grammatical theory. There is some excellent reading material produced by a group of scholars who have been working consistently for about forty years.

On the other hand, the persistence of drawbacks cannot be denied. For one thing, pronunciation is rather neglected and, generally, there is no planned series of oral drills. Secondly, the selection criterion is not pedagogical, but merely semantic. In other words, the intent is to give the capacity to express a great number of meanings with fewer words, not to start from the frequency of use in ordinary English or from the particular utility in the learner's own situation. This ambiguity begets special difficulties both in the teaching of grammar and in the presentation of vocabulary.

It is true that B.E. structures are very simple, but unless they are used properly by native speakers they are bound to sound awkward. Certain combinations are far from frequent in English.

Likewise the vocabulary is seemingly simplified, but in reality, since it is reckoned in terms of words rather than of lexical items or meanings, it inevitably contains many more than 850 semantic items. The verb *to get,* for example, presents an enormous variety of meanings; consequently the foreign learner is bound to get bewildered whenever context changes. The multiplicity of meanings derives also from the English habit of combining certain different prepositions with the same verb to convey different meanings. So while for

B.E. these common denominators become particularly useful, they add confusion in the mind of the student. In the typical cases of *get back at, get on, get up, get behind, get out, get off,* etc. there is probably a common underlying denotation, but it is altogether unpredictable to any foreigner. (The same could be said for German were it reduced to a similar basic system.) The same difficulty is caused by the use in B.E. of generic verbs in place of more specific verbs. The sentence *He gave the ball a kick* instead of the normal one *He kicked the ball,* — a circumlocution designed to avoid non-basic verbs — is a clear illustration of how an attempt to simplify can turn into an odd complication.

One general remark, therefore, could be a conclusive one: a language, inasmuch as it is a living organism, bears with it unavoidable redundancies and complications; over-reduction of such traits will tend to make the language artificial and accordingly awkward and useless.

2.1.3.2 **The Graded-Direct Method** /22/. This is a form of "direct" method insofar as it aims at placing the student in direct contact with the foreign language *without* the intermediary of his native tongue so as to force him to think in the foreign language itself. It avoids, however, the wasteful spontaneity of the earlier direct methods in that it offers *graded* material. Grading here is based on the hierarchical arrangement of vocabulary and structures that is intrinsic to the language itself. In other words, a selected vocabulary is "organized into graded sentence sequences, each building outward from the preceding ones — establishing in the students' minds the basic structure of the language, and substituting the active mastery meaning for mere *rote* memory" /23/.

A very important concept in the mind of Dr. Richards is what he calls the SEN-SIT, or "a unit made up of a sentence in the situation which gives it meaning ... Teaching a language effectively consists of inventing, arranging, presenting, and testing SEN-SITS ... When the structure of the sentence corresponds to a structure easily perceived in the situation, the SEN-SIT is said to be clear" /24/. Grading is therefore the distribution of SEN-SITS from the most obvious to the more ambiguous ones with regard to meaning. Intelligibility is the principal grading criterion /25/. Once the SEN-SITS have been arranged in the ideal order of intelligibility, they are presented without recourse to the learner's own language and by making use of ingenious pictures /26/ and of original audio-visual aids.

Grammar is taught by reducing all the material to a few basic structures, introducing each structure in its right place in the ideal meaningful order, and by substitution exercises ("teaching the structures through changes in the variables") /27/.

Oral work is not neglected. The Graded-Direct Method "leaves the amount of attention invested in perfecting pronunciation quite open, adjusted to the learner's probable needs, the school situation, resources, etc." /28/, although the textbooks themselves do not go into the question of phonetic training in any detail /29/.

A method of this sort can be successful with learners of all ages. The use of concrete illustrative aids, the efficient limitation of the linguistic material, the grading designed to do away with a great many learning difficulties, the clear and realistic teaching of grammar, the excellent teaching material tested through many years of experience, give worth to the method. On the other hand, certain weaknesses can be easily detected. There is too rigorous adherence to the principle of monolingual instruction, while the native language could sometimes facilitate learning. As in Basic English, the reduction of vocabulary can occasion awkward constructions or usages both lexically and grammatically, like the following: *What is the time? The time is one /30/. He is giving a push to the door /31/. Mary has a potato in*

her hand. She is taking the skin off with a knife /32/. (Why not just use the word *peel* here?). The trouble is that passing from Basic English to regular English may entail much unlearning, if the student has to leave aside simplified artificial constructions for natural more complicated ones.

Despite these criticisms it cannot be denied that the Graded-Direct Method has enjoyed widespread success in the teaching of English due perhaps mostly to its ingenious and original textbooks and audio-visual aids.

2.2 The Intensive Method /33/. Beside commercialized courses advertised in several countries, a more scientific orientation of the Intensive Method was developed especially in the United States under the Army Specialized Training Program. Usually the teaching was carried on by a "duo" composed of the linguist, who gave explanations on the structure of the language, and the instructor, assigned to the drilling sessions.

The intensive character of language study lies especially on the side of the work done with the instructor. Basic sentences to be drilled and overlearned are presented in six steps:

a. Imitation: The new vocabulary is presented word for word. Each word is repeated twice for each student. After giving the new vocabulary, the complete sentence or parts of it if necessary are given, following the same preceding procedure. Errors must be immediately corrected.

b. Repetition: The student will repeat twice the sentence he has learned without model.

c. Translation: The instructor gives the sentence and the student will give the English translation.

d. Rotation: The first sentence is given to the first student, the second to the second, and so on around the class. Then the first sentence is given to the second student, and so on successively, until all have begun with the first sentence.

e. Discontinous repetition: Still paying attention to pronunciation and exact imitation of intonation, the instructor takes the sentences in random order, giving the sentence in the foreign language and then saying to the student, "repeat" or "translate". Each student must take part, but no student should know what or when he is going to be asked.

f. Dialogue practice: Short but complete dialogues are used. The instructor begins the dialogue practice himself with the first student. Then the first student will have to repeat the dialogue with the second student, exchanging roles.

Besides these procedures, reviews at the beginning of each class hour, exercises for the last hours of the class are to be constantly used. The exercises commonly applied are of the following types: illustrative (to establish a grammatical point), substitution, response, translation, variation, and replacement exercises.

Beside the scientifically conceived intensive language programs developed over the past twenty years by the Defense Language Institute, other programs characterized by maximum intensiveness have been advertised. A few years ago, some articles in nationally distributed

periodicals publicized experimental projects in the Washington area known as "Total Immersion" and purporting to produce "Instant Linguistics" of showing "How to Learn a Language in Five Days". It is unfortunate that publicity was given disproportionately to the commercial aspects of what was essentially a basic medical research approach to neurological, physiological, and psychological features of the transmission of new audio information in the brain in concentrated form under stress conditions. No professional attempts were made in these experiments to substitute the "Total Immersion" approach for conventional intensive language teaching, since the purpose of the research had been entirely medically oriented with language learning (instruction supplied by a commercial language school) serving as a vehicle for providing "new" audio information. As in the past, journalistic over-simplifications of language learning programs give the public the impression that these "new methods" could produce "miracles" and imply that all other methods are wasteful of time and effort in comparison. There is the misleading implication that one can "learn to speak a foreign language" in a few days, when in fact the results lead at best to a temporary collection of expedient cognates and glib uttering of unnatural or pat phrases rather than to spontaneous conversation as carried on by mature adults.

Any intensive method requires a high degree of linguistic aptitude in the learner, a reduction of the language to basic forms, and *sufficient time for practice.* Intensiveness cannot do away with time, but it is rather a "more-time-in-less-time-accumulation work". Intensive procedures are to be considered as part of a method, indeed, of any good method of language teaching. However, one caution needs voicing: such procedures should not produce stress and lead the student to frustation /34/.

2.3 The Audio-visual Method /35/. The use of visual aids in language teaching dates as far back as Comenius (17th century) and it regained vigor at the end of the last century. But never like after the last war did technological aids have so deep an impact on language teaching. Wall charts and printed illustrations have been surpassed, although not entirely replaced, by slides, motion pictures, TV programs, with the added reinforcement of sound-producing machines like phonographs and tape recorders. Audio-visual aids have found a relevant place in foreign language teaching and have found in the language laboratory their most modern prototype. Simply mentioning all the achievements attained by the application of the new media and aids to language teaching would require several books and, after all, it would be out of place here.

What ought to be said, however, from a methodological standpoint, is that audio-visual techniques cannot alone constitute a "method" but just a *subsidiary part* of any method which aims at teaching the spoken language. Secondly, there might be a danger by relying solely on the machine that the learner may take on a rather passive attitude (listening, watching, and nothing more) thus jeopardizing the integrity of the expected outcome in language learning, namely, the ability to actively communicate (and not only to receive messages in the foreign language).

Therefore, the audio-visual of teaching and learning can only improperly be called a "method", although it is here to stay, and it is going to represent one of the most valuable assets within the frame of any functional-oral approach.

2.4 The Linguistic (Anthropological) Method. The impact of modern linguistics on language teaching has been far-reaching. Immanent analysis of the language to be studied, scientific classification of its basic and typical features on the phonemic, morphological,

syntactic, and semantic levels, analysis of contrasts between Language 1 and Language 2 (native language and target language), and other achievements of linguistic structural analysis have been tremendously influential in revolutionizing the methods of teaching foreign languages. Especially in the United States, the meeting of linguistics and language teaching constitutes a uniquely important chapter in the history of modern methodology /36/.

Nevertheless it may be said that the linguistic, consolidated by the anthropological, dimension is only one basis of language teaching method, as H.E. Palmer had already clearly perceived and stated. It concerns merely the objective aspect of language study, i.e. the linguistic material to be analyzed, selected, graded, and presented to the student; while language teaching must take into account also a number of other subjective and objective dimensions. No doubt, the linguistic material can appear more or less easy for assimilation on the part of the student according to the analytic model used in describing and classifying it: in this sense, a theory of grammar is not altogether indifferent to language pedagogy /37/.

The more recent trends in linguistic analysis emphasizing the application of a generative-transformational model and a re-appraisal of the semantic component have opened up new perspectives. But this constitutes only a remote reference to the teaching process. In the actual business of teaching the objectively analyzed material has to be *adapted* to the particular student and to his objectives.

All this amounts to saying that the emphasis on the contribution of linguistics should not become exclusive or dominant. There is no such thing as a "linguistic method" but only a *linguistic component* of method.

2.5 The Audio-Lingual (aural-oral) Method. In *sofar as* only the audio-oral aspect of language learning is emphasized, this so-called "method" is reduced to a set of procedures or techniques aiding the auditory assimilation and the building of productive skills in the foreign language. Language is sound, but it is not only sound. It is cultural content, ability to read and write, appreciation of the literature, etc. It is habit *and* conscious control, a set of automatized verbal habits controlled by the awareness of how the language works. Therefore, it is rather improper to speak of a "method" in this case: it is one, though very important, section of language acquisition, and therefore one segment only within the whole process.

Recent theoretical and experimental studies of the validity of the audio-lingual method point concordantly in the direction of its partial fulfilment of the integral requirements of foreign language teaching. If taken narrowly, it would overemphasize verbal automatization and neglect more conscious operations required by human learning; it would be reduced to a mere *"mim-mem"* type of learning where mimicry and memorization would exhaust all phases of language acquisition /38/.

3.0 The Integrated Approach. Both theory and experience converge to show that the complexity of the teaching process can be met with varying, adaptable, flexible, manysided procedures only. Overemphasis on one or few aspects of the process of language acquisition has been responsible for the present proliferation of methods, each one claiming almost absolute truth or unique value. Open-minded teachers and scholars are convinced that no one single factor can explain and guide language learning as a developmental process. A more comprehensive philosophy and psychology of language learning, therefore, points to

the necessity of postulating a *multiple-dimensional approach* and, accordingly, of keeping methodological programming ever open to new adaptations and contributions from various provinces of theory and experience.

Integration of a multiplicity of procedures into the same method can be based merely on experiential or pre-scientific grounds or on truly scientific premises and criteria. In the former case, the issue is a *functionally eclectic methodology* which is open to all valuable suggestions from systematic experience or even from science, but is not in itself a strictly scientific construction. In the latter case, integration is the result of a scientific process which generates a *scientific integrated approach.*

H.E. Palmer termed his own methodology a "multiple line of approach" as based on an *eclectic* attitude /39/. "This complete method", he declares "...boldly incorporates what is valuable in any system or method of teaching and refuses to recognize any conflict, except the conflict between the good and the inherently bad. The complete method will embody every type of teaching except bad teaching, and every process of learning except defective learning. The complete method (of which the multiple line of approach is the expression) is the antithesis of the special or patent method. Patent or proprietary methods very often, but not always, resemble patent medicines. We know what they are. A patent language method, like a patent medicine, claims to prevent or to cure all possible ills (linguistic or physical, as the case may be) by repeated applications of one special device or drug: both of them claim to kill innumerable birds with one stone" /40/. On the contrary, the eclectic approach will say: "Find the right stone to kill the right bird", and "It is often advisable to kill one bird with more than one stone". This principle, which underlies all others, leaves the door open for new devices, new methods, and improvements on the old ones. It leaves us free to welcome and to adopt all sorts of innovations, provided such innovations are likely to prove of value" /41/. A practical eclecticism as advocated by Palmer is not unscientific, for it is particularly inclined to welcome the best contributions from science whether it be linguistics or anthropology, psychology or neurophysiology, etc. However, the whole approach is nothing more than a general attitude without real theoretical organization. It does not, briefly, constitute a *system* or an organized methodology.

This author feels, therefore, the need of going further along the line of integration in order to establish a genuinely *scientific integrated methodology*. In order to banish whatever is arbitrary and onesided, there seems to be no other way than exploring more deeply and extensively the process of language learning on the basis of an *interdisciplinary* scientific approach. The need for multiple-disciplinary and interdisciplinary support arises from the very nature of the object of such learning, *language*, which in its ontological complexity can be adequately studied only by several converging scientific disciplines /42/. Likewise such scientific multidimensionality stems from the complexity of the factors at work within the individual learner and his existential situation. Therefore, a truly scientific approach has to consider and to base its principles not only upon linguistics, on the objective side of learning, or psychology, on the subjective side, but on several sciences that are capable of clarifying *all* the aspects and factors actively present in the learning situation. In sum, any method stemming from a scientific integrated approach ought to be derived from (1) a scientific linguistic and anthropological analysis of language and of the specific language to be taught, (2) a psycholinguistic analysis of the process of second language learning, (3) a definition of the specific objectives to be attained by a particular course of language study, and (4) the indications offered by a general theory of teaching and the results of experience and experimentation in foreign language teaching (historical and experimental dimensions).

Granted the theoretical validity of such an interdisciplinary model, all integrated methods and procedures, to be actually valid and effective, will have to be *tested through experimental research* /43/. This, I believe, is the only way to real progress in language teaching.

Today language teaching seems to be following two significant directions: (1) linguistic teachers and scholars are sharing a growing feeling that effective language teaching needs to be based on the consideration of multiple factors and aspects; in the near future, indeed, already in many circles today, talking about the grammar-translation method or the audio-lingual method will make no more sense since they will be envisaged as partial sets of principles and procedures to be integrated in a larger methodological frame *(methodological integration)*; (2) the definitive value of a method will have to be established by careful scientific experimentation. Experimental research in the field of foreign language teaching has accumulated in the past twenty years an immense body of material and results and is gradually taking on greater significance. Few conclusions based on such research have attained a high degree of probability; many procedural issues are awaiting appropriate solutions: design-making is particularly difficult in experimenting on teaching; and adequate paradigms on teaching effectiveness are still a desideratum /44/. However, interdisciplinary programming under the joint responsibility of linguists, anthropologists, psychologists, neurologists, statisticians, and interested teachers, is the indispensable guarantee for success in the future attempts at improving foreign language teaching.

4. Conclusion

What guidelines can be derived from an examination of the present situation and the trends of experimental language teaching? Both Carrol and Lado, as well as Stern in his synthesis presented at the conclusion of the 1963 Berlin Congress, were anxious to formulate indications and recommendations to be followed by research workers in this field. Two of the most important points deserve to be placed in the form of a conclusion to the preceding considerations.

(1) Research and experimentation require clear vision and formulation not only of the problems, but also of the hypotheses relative to their solution /45/. This implies better founded and developed theoretical bases than those to be found at the starting point of much present research. Moreover, language teaching methodology demands more mature contributions from the psychology of language learning, contributions which have not so far been supplied. We still know too little or almost nothing about the process, the conditions, and the factors at work in the learning of a second language. While, therefore, it is necessary to encourage the experimenters, it is equally necessary to encourage the methodologists or the theorists of language teaching.

(2) More than laboratory experimentation – clearly not to be rejected – a well programed series of operational researches is needed, these should be conducted in normal classroom situations, with the participation of language teachers and under the direction of experts who master the techniques of scientific investigation, but at the same time are fully aware of the particular characteristics of the actual situations in which teaching takes place. Therefore, this survey closed with the conviction that the science of language teaching on the one hand and the improvement of practical procedures on the other depend mainly on the parallel fulfilment of two fundamental requirements: namely, interdisciplinary solidarity and enlightened realism.

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1 Libbish, R. (ed.), Advances in the Teaching of Modern Languages. Vol. 1. Oxford: Pergamon Press, 1964, p. viii.

2 M.D. Berlitz, Illustrated Book for Children: How To Use This Book. New York: Berlitz Publications, 1949, p.3.

3 From unpublished material kindly granted by the Berlitz School in Washington, D.C.

4 A "book lesson" may last from 15 minutes to several hours, depending upon the student's rapidity of learning.

5 The student reads only material already drilled orally.

6 Cf. the psychological or personality qualifications of a "Berlitz professor". (Unpublished notes of the Berlitz School).

7 Cf. Berlitz Method (New York: Berlitz School of Language Publications); Berlitz English, Books I, II (1949); Berlitz Business English (1949); Berlitz Idiom and Grammar (1949); Berlitz English for Children (1949); Berlitz English Literature (1949), etc. Similar books have been prepared for other languages.

8 Cf. Bilingualism (1926); Definition Vocabulary (Toronto: Dept. of Educ. Res., 1935); Education and Psychology (1941); Improve Your English (1951 repr.); Language in Education (1929); Learning To Speak a Foreign Language (1926); Learning To Read a Foreign Language (1926); New Method English Dictionary (1935); New Method English Series (1952), eight vols.; N. W. and H. C. Bannerjee, English Words for All Occasions (1936 etc.), and other practical manuals (see catalog of Longmans, London/New York).

9 Cf. The Teaching of English in the Far East (New York: World Book Co., 1927); Practical Pronunciation Helps (Shanghai: Commercial Press, 1934); L.F. and Maki Itsu, A Study of English Word Values Statistically Determined from the Latest Extensive Word Counts (Tokyo: Matsumura Shanshodo, 1932); finally, An Oxford English Course with F.G. French and Supplementary Readers with M.G.M. Faucett.

10 Cf. Second Language Learning (New York: Ginn & Co., 1948); An Approach to English Literature for Students Abroad (London: Oxford University Press, Books 1–5).

11 Cf. The Teaching of English as a Second Language (London: Macmillan, 1950); English by Stages (London: Macmillan, 1951).

12 Cf. Teaching English as a Foreign Language (London: Macmillan, 1957).

13 Methodological treatises and textbooks produced by these experts were directly concerned whith the teaching of English as a foreign language to students of Eastern countries. However, many of their principles could be, and were, easily applied to the teaching of other modern languages.

14 Cf. Jones, D., Pronunciation of English. (Cambridge: C. Univ. Press, 1st ed. 1909); An Outline of English Phonetics (Leipzig: Teubner, 1st ed. 1922); An English Pronouncing Dictionary (New York: Dutton, 1937). A later work is The Phoneme, Its Nature and Use (Cambridge: Heffer, 1950).

15 Cf. West, M., Interim Report on Vocabulary Selection (London: King & Son, 1936). A recent reworking is the General English Service List (London: Longmans, 1953). Cf. also West and Bannerjee, English Words for All Occasions (New York: Longmans, 1936).

16 Cf. e.g. the Oxford English Series.

17 Cf. H.E. Palmer & F.G. Blandford, Grammar of Spoken English (Cambridge: Heffer, 1924, 1950); J.F.G. Gratten & P. Gurrey, Our Living Language (London: Nelson, 1929); and, with a more modern slant, W.S. Allen, Living English Structure (London: Longmans, 1948). "Living English grammar" is nothing but a presentation of and drilling on the structures currently used in actual communication.

18 Many of these textbooks are still effectively used in the Orient.

19 This denomination is taken from Cochran, A., Modern Methods of Teaching English as a Foreign Language (Washington, D.C.: Educational Services, 1958, Ch. 5).

20 Cf. Ogden. C.K., The System of Basic English (New York: Harcourt, 1934); The ABC of Basic English (New York: Barnes Noble, rev. ed. 1943); Basic Step by Step (New York: Barnes Noble, 1939). There exists a Basic English Foundation (117 Piccadilly, London).

21 As a proof of this, translations have been made of all types of materials into Basic, from the strictest technical books to the Basic Bible and to E.A. Poe's The Gold Bug (in Basic, The Gold Insect).

22 The method originated with Dr. I.A. Richards and Miss Christine M. Gibson and was being followed and developed at Language Research Inc., 13 Kirkland Street, Cambridge, Mass. For documentation on the method see esp. Richards, I.A., Basic English and Its Uses (New York: Norton, 1943); and Gibson, C.M., English through Pictures (New York: Pocket Books, Inc., 1952); Learning the English Language (New York: Houghton, Mifflin, 1943); A Second Workbook of English (Cambridge, Mass.: Language Res. Inc. 1950); Words on Paper (Cambridge, Mass.: Language Res., 1943), etc.

23 Richards, I.A., The New Approach to the Teaching of Language Skills Developed by Language Research, Inc., at Harvard University. New York: Seminar Films Inc., 1952, p.l.

24 Notes for a Discussion of Elementary Language Teaching. Report by Dr. I.A. Richards to the UNESCO, Paris, June 19. 1947, p.l.

25 Ibidem, passim.

26 Cf. English through Pictures, a textbook using stick figure cartoons to present the SEN–SITS in the ideal order. The introduction appears translated into 41 languages, two Workbooks accompanying it for the use of the student, and a Teacher's Manual.

27 Notes ... p. 2.

28 Oral statement by Dr. Richards to Anne Cochran, Modern Methods of Teaching English as a Foreign Language, ed. cit., p.34.

29 When the teacher is not a native speaker of English, the G.–D. Method offers special mechanical aids developed by Language Research, Inc.: stick figure cartoons, filmstrips, recordings, and lately sound-film-loops. The long filmstrips were broken up into lesson-loops. A lesson-loop consists of a "length of 16 mm film, spliced head to tail to permit continuous running, the time for the complete cycle averaging two minutes". (The New Approach etc., p.4). This type of loop "attached to a standard projector, makes it possible to run short loops of sound-film continuously without re-threading". (Ibid., p.3). It is easy to imagine what a number of interesting class drills, test, and other excercises can be carried out by such device.

30 English through Pictures, p.35.

31 Ibid., p.59.

32 Ibid., p.92.

33 Cf. Moulton, W.G., "Linguistics and language teaching in the United States, 1940–1960", reprinted by U.S. Gov. Printing Office and in International Journal of Applied Lingustics (Heidelberg), I/1 1963; P.F. Angiolillo, Armed Forces' Foreign Language Teaching: Critical evaluation and implications (New York: Vanni, 1947); and unpublished documents of the Defense Language Institute (DLI).

34 This warning has been reiterated by other authors: "Our analysis ... militates against the adoption and use of teaching methodology employing extreme massing of practice and stress in the teaching process for foreign language learning". Rocklyn, E.H. and Montague, W.E., A Brief Review of Extreme Massing of Practice and Stress on Foreign Language Acquisition. Human Resources Research Office, Div. No 7, Alexandria, Va., June 1965, p.1.

35 The bibliography on this subject both in Europe and in America is enormous. It may be noted, however, that the so-called "méthode audiovisuelle" has received wide attention especially in Europe, and in France it has been considerably developed by the experts of the CREDIF and BELC (Paris). Beside the reports circulated by these two institutions, one can refer to the following publication: Council of Europe, Recherches et techniques nouvelles au service de l'enseignement des langues vivantes, Strasbourg, 1964. In the United States the insistence has been especially on the audio side of the learning process. This is one reason that explains the rapid and wide spreading of the language laboratory on all school and university levels.

36 Scores of articles have been written especially in the U.S. about the contribution of linguistics to language teaching. It would be impossible here to present even just a selected bibliography. An example of a course linguistically oriented is C.C. Fries, The Teaching and Learning of English as a Foreign Language. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan, 1945. Bloomfield's Outline Guide also is one of the most typical examples of a linguistic-oriented methodology, in the strict sense assigned to the phrase "applied linguistics".

37 Cf. di Pietro, R.J., "Operational and Taxonomic Models in Language Teaching". Paper read at the TESOL Conference, New York City, March 19, 1966. Also: R. Lakoff, "Transformational grammar and language teaching", Language Learning, 1970, 19, 1–2, pp.117–140.

38 Much has been said about the psychological weaknesses of the audio-lingual method by W.M. Rivers in her essay, The Psychologist and the Foreign Language Teacher (Chicago: The Univ. of Chicago Press. 1964): her book is a widely articulated critique of the limitations of such methodology. On an experimental basis, the comparison between the grammar-translation method and the audio-lingual has been made and reported by a linguist and a psychologist, G.A.C. Scherer and M. Wertheimer, in their book A Psycholinguistic Experiment in Foreign-Language Teaching (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1964): differences in the results depend on respectively different emphases. This is a further proof of the onesidedness of both methods. Acceptable is the position of the Soviet methodologist, Belyayev, who stresses what he calls a "conscious-practical method". (Cf. B.V. Belyayev, The Psychology of Teaching Foreign Languages. Oxford: Pergamon Press, 1963).

39 Cf. Palmer, Harold E., The Principles of Language-Study. New edit. London: Oxford Univ. Press, 1964, Ch. 15.

40 Ibid., pp. 110–11.

41 Ibid., p. 114.

42 This thesis is favored by R. Lado, (Language Teaching: A Scientific Approach. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1964) and R, Titone (Le Lingue Estere: Methodologia Didattica. Rome: PAS, 1965).

43 Cf. Gage, N.L., Handbook of Research on Teaching (Chicago: McNally, 1964).

44 Cf. Nostrand, H.L., et al., Research on Language Teaching: An Annotated International Bibliography, 1945–64. (Second rev.edit. Seattle: Univ. of Washington Press, 1965); National Defense Language Development Program, Completed Research Studies, and Instructional Materials. (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1965); Language Teaching Abstracts (periodical, British Council, London). See also the following summaries: Carrol, J.B., Research on Teaching Foreign Languages (Univ. of Mich., 1961); Research in foreign language teaching: the last five years, in Mead, R.G. (ed.), Northeast Conference Reports of the Working Committees, 1966, 12–42; Lado, R. and J. Ornstein "Research in foreign language teaching methodology" IRAL, V/2, 1967, 11–26. An excellent sizeup of the present international situation was presented by Dr. H.H. Stern to the International Conference on Modern Foreign Language Teaching (Berlin, Cornelsen Verlag, 1965, IV).

45 Central to an effective comparison of different teaching methodologies is the strict maintenance of the desired distinctions between the methods and, preliminarily, a clear definition of such distinctions. The lack of such a scientific provision underlies the failure of otherwise important investigations such as the one carried out by Scherer and Wertheimer (A psycholinguistic experiment in foreign language teaching. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1964) and even the recent "Pennsylvania Project" designed to compare the Audio-lingual and the Traditional methods of language teaching. Cf. especially L.M. Aleamoni & R.E. Spencer, "An evaluation of the Pennsylvania Foreign Language project", Modern Language Journal, October 1969, and J.L.D. Clark, "The Pennsylvania Project and the 'Audio-lingual vs. Traditional' question", Modern Language Journal, October 1969, pp. 388–396.

Résumé

1. Le renouvellement des méthodes d'enseignement de langues étrangères constaté aujourd'hui est basé sur une investigation scientifique appliquée avec énergie à l'extirpation des erreurs anciennes; sur une approche psychologique reliée aux recherches et à la théorie linguistiques; sur l'aide de nouveaux appareils électroniques.

2. Le mouvement de réforme, jusqu'ici limité à peu de nations et à peu de cercles dans chaque nation, s'est répandu partout dans le monde oriental, aussi bien que dans le monde occidental. Un signe de cette universalité est l'émergence rapide des organismes nationaux et internationaux, et la fréquence des réunions au niveau international, pour étudier les problèmes de l'enseignement de langues vivantes. Le mouvement a acquis une dimension géographique qui égale à peu près l'intérêt consacré aux sciences physiques et mathématiques.

3. On peut mieux évaluer la situation en faisant la comparaison entre les méthodes généralement utilisées aujourd'hui dans les écoles de langues.

a. Méthodes appartenant à l' "approche formelle" – celles de traduction et de lecture – sont en cours de remplacement par d'autres méthodes plus actives d'enseignement de langues.

b. La plupart des méthodes courantes sont des exemples de celle dite "fonctionnelle" – la méthode "directe" (une grande variété comprenant la méthode Berlitz, la méthode "directe éclectique" de tradition britannique, les méthodes de simplification, comme par exemple l'Anglais fondamental, ou la méthode directe graduée), les méthodes intensives, audio-visuelles, audio-linguales, etc. Leur but est principalement pratique: elles envisagent l'enseignement de la langue en tant qu'instrument vivant de communication.

c. La direction la plus récente et la plus scientifique est celle prise par la méthode dite "approche integrée". La théorie et la pratique de l'enseignement se combinent pour montrer que seuls les procédés variés, souples, adaptables et divers peuvent faire face à la complexité du processus d'enseignement. Une philosophie et une psychologie compréhensives de l'étude des langues indiquent la nécessité de postuler une approche multidimensionnelle et, par la suite, de maintenir la programmation méthodologique toujours ouverte à de nouvelles adaptations et contributions des différents domaines de la théorie et des recherches.

4. Le "méthodologue integré" du paragraphe 3c remarque plusieurs phénomènes caractéristiques dans le domaine de l'enseignement de langues:

a. une insistance croissante sur la recherche expérimentale comme épreuve absolue de validité méthodologique (application des techniques de recherche).

b. Les efforts pour trouver des explications psychologiques plus adéquates du processus d'apprendre les langues (appel à la psycholinguistique).

c. la crise de la grammaire (rejet de l'enseignement de la grammaire formelle).

d. la reprise du principe de "mise en situation", comme réaction à l'idée mécaniste de la répétition de phrases types (le contexte de la situation rend authentique la communication).

5. Pour amener l'enseignement à un plus haut point d'efficacité, on devrait demander toujours des recherches scientifiques. Cependant, les recherches dans la méthodologie de l'enseignement de langues ne peut être d'une utilité réelle que si l'on tient compte de certaines conditions et de certains besoins.

a. Les recherches et l'expérimentation rendent nécessaire une vision et une formulation claires et précises non seulement des problèmes, mais aussi des hypothèses relatives à de meilleures méthodes d'enseignement de langues. Ceci exige des bases théoriques mieux fondées et mieux développées que celles qui se trouvent au point de départ d'une grande partie des recherches courantes. De plus, la méthodologie de l'enseignement de langues exige des contributions beaucoup plus mûres de la part de la psychologie d'apprendre les langues. Tout en étant donc nécessaire d'encourager les expérimentateurs, il est également nécessaire d'encourager les théoréticiens de l'étude linguistique.

b. Plus que l'expérimentation au laboratoire – qui n'est pas d'ailleurs à rejeter – une série bien programmée de recherches opérationnelles est nécessaire, laquelle devrait être menée dans les situations normales de salle de classe, avec la participation de professeurs de langues et sous la direction d'experts qui auraient une maîtrise adéquate des techniques de l'investigation scientifique et en même temps seraient sensibles aux vrais problèmes de l'enseignement réel. Il s'ensuit donc que la science de l'enseignement de langues d'une part, et l'amélioration des processus pratiqués de l'autre dépendent principalement de la réponse à deux besoins fondamentaux: à savoir, la solidarité interdisciplinaire et le réalisme éclairé.

Echelons of Managerial Linguistics

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0.1 Introduction

The significance of advances made in the basic theory of management during the past twenty years parallels gains made in the science of linguistics, indeed in all sciences. It follows then, that if we identify these advances and if we apply to one science the knowledge acquired from the other, we can turn our observations to a meaningful account.

It is my purpose in this paper to demonstrate that by applying the various strategies of the basic theories of modern management to the science of applied linguistics, the result will be a more effective, efficient, and productive language training program.

1.0 The Role of the Linguist in the Military Framework

The attack on Pearl Harbor on December 7, 1941 brought an abrupt end to linguistic isolationism in the United States. Within the Armed Forces it was realized that vast numbers of young Americans would soon be scattered over a large portion of the globe, and that they would have immediate need for an effective, efficient, and economic language training program which would enable large numbers of men to speak various languages.

When the Armed Forces began to look for the type of language training which they believed they needed, they found it in the work of the Intensive Language Program (ILP), — a program established by the American Council of Learned Societies in early 1941. Aided by the Rockefeller Foundation, a small number of linguists[1] were induced to work on the descriptive analyses of a number of languages for which no adequate teaching materials existed. The ILP soon became the planning center for a massive attack on the teaching of a wide variety of familiar languages. Before the program was over, just about every trained linguist in the country had become involved in one capacity or another.

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1) Throughout this article, I will use the term "linguist." You must realize that I am defining the term "linguist" as a person trained in the science of linguistics, who is currently applying the principles incorporated within this science to an ongoing language training program.

In April of 1943, the first area and language courses of the Army Specialized Training Program were established and by the end of the year some 15,000 troops were being trained at 55 colleges and universities in 27 different languages. This same year also saw the establishment of the ACAT (Army Civil Affairs Training School) which gave language and other training to military personnel intended for military missions in Italy, Germany, and Japan. During this period, under the direction of a then military linguist, Major Henry Lee Smith, Jr., now professor of Linguistics and Anthropology at State University of New York at Buffalo, the Education Branch of the Army Special Services Division was engaged in the production of a wide variety of language materials ranging from simple phrase books, and dictionaries, to complete language courses.

Outstanding among these were manuals in the Spoken Language series. The names of the authors and co-authors from a partial roster of linguists of the period were: Bloch, Dyen, Hass, Haugen, Hockett, Hodge, Hoenigswald, Kahane, Lukoff, McKown, Sebeok, Trevino and Bloomfield. In these manuals written by linguists of the Army Specialized Training Program and similar programs, there emerged the breakthrough in the approach to language teaching which was vastly different from the then traditional prescriptive approach prevalent in the schools and colleges throughout the country.

The operation of the linguist under military management not only produced materials founded on sound linguistic principles, but also fostered the growth and development of the continually dynamic science of linguistics. Since that memorable epoch, new theories of linguistics have crystallized. Concomitantly, new theories of management have also originated.

American linguistics owe a great part of their initial spurt to the influence of military management. A glance at the continuing successful language training programs in the United States shows them to be effective and strong only when led by men who are able to implement basic linguistic principles through modern management practices.

These bold basic principles, set forth by those linguists, were something of a shock to the language training community. The main features were:

1. Language is speech, not writing.
2. Teach the language, not about the language.
3. A language is what its native speakers say, not what someone thinks they ought to say.
4. Languages differ. That is, you can not impose a contrived artificial nomenclature on structures of languages in which they simply do not exist, for the sake of symmetry.

To evaluate the linguists' attitude toward language instruction in those war time courses, one must keep in mind the fact that they were planned for a specific purpose. The linguists were asked to design a language program which would be operationally effective, and this is precisely what they attempted to do. The traditionalists were troubled by various aspects of the new approach. They were thinking in terms of a language training program on a university campus. The linguists approach to grammar was based on the principle of operational effectiveness which did result in language learning at the "out of awareness" level.

The traditionalists wanted the student to retain an analysis of the structures of the target language. The linguists agreed, but emphasized that an analysis of the structure of the target language was not the main function of language learning. For analytical purposes,

most linguists felt that a distinct and separate course in phonetics and phonemics should be introduced to the university curriculum. The traditionalists and the linguists agreed on one further point, that the goal for a language training program should not only consist of teaching our students to speak, but also to say something worth listening to.

The past is prologue. Today, we have, as a result of amalgamation with other disciplines, several subdivisions in linguistics, e.g., Psycho-Linguistics; Bio-Linguistics; Anthropological Linguistics, Mathematical Linguistics and Computer Linguistics. A heretofore neglected combination of disciplines, however, is Managerial Linguistics, the result of interplay between modern management techniques and modern linguistic expertise. What then follows is their natural synthesis and the role Managerial Linguistics shall play in modern language training programs.

2.0 Definition of the Managerial Linguist[2)]

The managerial linguist, then, is one who has been soundly trained in linguistic principles and in modern management practices.

The duality of the posture that the linguist and the manager assume can be put to the test by judging the response to the question "What is your profession? " The linguist unhesitatingly says "Linguist," while the manager invariably includes the name of his organization as part of his response. The managerial linguist, who combines the dualities in the posture of linguist and manager, responds by explaining his role within the framework of his organization.

This role can be visualized as dynamic interplay between environmental forces and pressures which bear upon the managerial linguist. He describes his role as an attempt to harmonize the competing pressures of the disciplines, two disciplines which emanate from two seemingly distinct approaches to the two sciences. What is important to note is that the managerial linguist must operate effectively, efficiently and productively through his interpersonal competence and extensive skills in the behavioral, linguistic, and managerial sciences.

3.0 Theories of Management

An overall view of the major approaches to management theory is essential for the clarification of the major mutual interdependant areas developing between the two disciplines, Linguistics and Management.

The lack of academic writing and research in the formative years of modern management practices has been somewhat compensated for by the plethora of recent research and writing by academia. From the orderly analysis of management by Taylor[3)], and from the simplistic management point of view set forth by Fayol[4)], a complexity of developments in the multifaceted approaches to management theory has now unfolded.

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2) The term "managerial linguist" evolved from discussions with Colonel Christopher W. Chaney, Director, Defense Language Institute, 1966–1969.

3) Taylor, F.W., Scientific Management, (New York, 1919), Harper and Row.

4) Fayol, H., Industrial and General Management, International Management Institute, 1930.

3.1 The *mathematical approach* is now employed by those theorists who see management as a system of mathematical models and processes. The most widely known group are the operations researchers, or operational scientists. Their hypothesis is a logical process, and can be best expressed in terms of mathematical symbols and relationships. The central approach of this school is the "model", and it is through this device that the problem is expressed in its basic relationships and in terms of selected goals and objectives.

3.2 The *empirical approach* identifies management as a study of experience. It sometimes draws generalizations, but usually attempts to analyze experience and transfer it to the practitioner. This approach is based on the premise that through the study of the experience of successful managers, or conversely, through the study of the mistakes made in management, one can understand and learn to apply the most effective kinds of management techniques to management problems. Additionally, this approach assumes that by finding out what worked or did not work in individual circumstances, the practitioner will be able to do the same in comparable circumstances.

3.3 The *human behavior approach* is based on the central thesis that managing involves getting things done with and through people, hence, the study of management must be centered on interpersonal relations, variously called the "human relations", "leadership", or "behavioral science" approach.

This approach imposes existing and newly developed theories, methods and techniques of the relevant social sciences on the study of inter and intra personal phenomena ranging fully from the personality-dynamics of individuals at one extreme to the relations of cultures at the other. This school concentrates on the *people* part and rests on the premise that people work together as *groups* in order to accomplish objectives.

3.4 The *social systems approach* is closely related to the human behavior approach and often confused with it. Management is viewed as a social system, i.e., as a system of cultural inter-relationships. The system is limited to formal organizations using the term "organization" as equivalent to "enterprise", rather than the authority activity concept most often used in management. This approach is used to describe any kind of system of human relationship rather than emphasizing the "form" of an organization.

3.5 The *decision theory school* represents another approach to management theory undertaken by a growing and scholarly group, and considers the selection of a course of action or idea from among possible alternatives. This approach deals with the decision itself, or to the persons or organizational group making the decision, or to an analysis of the decision process. In some instances decision theory can even be expanded to cover the psychological and sociological aspect and environment of decisions and decision making.

3.6 The *management process approach* perceives management as a process for getting things done through and with people who are operating in organized groups. It views management theory as a way of organizing experience so that practice can be improved through research, empirical testing of principles, and teaching of fundamentals in the management process.

All of these approaches to theories of management may be considered as applicable strategies. Each one, used properly, could solve some of the many problems which are

generated in any language training program. It is important to consider all of these theories as they eclectically apply to managerial linguistics.

4.0 Application of Managerial Linguistic Theories

Leonard Sayles in his text *Managerial Behavior* argues that there is ample reason to seek both a theory of management and a method of implementing it which will provide generally acceptable measures of managerial performance. There is general agreement with his premise that large organizations, schools of administration and governments pay a high price for their inability to measure managerial behavior.

Within the scope of this paper it then becomes valuable to demonstrate the managerial linguist's behavior as strategies based on theories of modern management practices are applied to a language training program. Consider the following cases.

4.1 The Individual in Isolation Approach

Posit the fact that the staff of a stable resident language training program has identified the need for proper orientation to its methodology by its instructional personnel. Upper echelon specialists respond to this request because they naturally feel that they are in the best position to diagnose what is applicable at that level. They feel best qualified to not only determine which deficiencies need to be eliminated among individuals to be trained, but also to determine how training specialists should proceed. It is reasoned that the specialists of the upper echelon of management should be able to define better than anyone else the specific goals of training for each individual at the operational level.

Background information having been collected, the specialist then is ready for his next step. He researches appropriate text material and reviews his files for outlines of training programs which worked successfully in other situations. After hours of concentrated effort centered around his own concern, the "training specialist package" is pieced together. In his considered opinion, the package should be highly acceptable. He presents it with enthusiasm to the line organization for review and acceptance.

One can assume that the specialist has done a creditable job of design relative to subject matter content. The reviewing group of the organization makes minor revisions in the package. Memoranda are attached, scheduling takes place. Concurrently, visual aids are developed and qualified personnel are selected to fit the instructor's role. The dilemma remains: How many sessions are needed for complete presentation of the subject and how will their role affect their regular work schedule?

The penultimate step is for the management group either to "dry-run" the program or to undergo a short "appreciation session". Subject matter tests may be developed and plans are made to insert test results or simple attendance requirements in each participant's employment record. Finally, all the trainees attend classes, complete the course and the specialist's division, which produced the materials, adds that fact to the quarterly report.

There are minor variations that were omitted in this "individual in isolation" approach. However, by and large, this has been the basically typical approach in ongoing language training programs today. The reason for using the term "specialist" in lieu of "managerial linguist" in this case of the "individual in isolation" approach is perhaps obvious. It is an authority-centered activity. It lacks the ingredient for proper motivation and the features of

review and feedback. This approach does not recognize any interaction between individuals and groups in thinking through training needs.

4.2 T-Group Approach

Posit now the premise that a need for proper orientation to its methodology by the instructional personnel of a stable resident language training program has been established. Modify only one feature. The need has been identified by the instructional personnel and expressed through its line management. The managerial linguist, in charge of curriculum development, responds to this request and meets with the responsible management group. He discusses with them the broad training needs that they have identified as existing in the problem area.

Discussion then moves to two questions. What are the procedures to be developed in clarifying these training needs and in making sure that they are the real needs for learning? What are the procedures to be followed in defining the subject matter, and the method of presentation for the training itself?

Implicit in this first step is the identification of incentives that motivate any trainee, not only to learn, but also to desire and feel secure in attempting the application of new learning techniques in his own job performance.

The managerial linguist interviews experienced instructors. Working with these instructors, he seeks to determine their ideas on needs, goals and appropriate techniques for satisfaction. Working with assistance or alone, depending on circumstances, the managerial linguist roughs out a few pages of the course. Included in this text is the methodology and procedures fitted together in a sequence and order that complies with requests of men previously interviewed. Rough drafts of the texts are then placed in the hands of the instructors of the orientation course, including their supervisors for all of their comments, suggestions, additions, and criticisms.

During this phase, it is highly desirable for the managerial linguist and members of line management to visit the job site, to talk with operational echelon about the orientation course, and to help them in thinking through additional items which ought to be included in order to make the text an even more useful training aid. By following the sequence, outlined above, contributions through the opportunity to comment will have been elicited, and from the start a feeling of ownership is developed.

The managerial linguist now gathers the text from the instructors. The various suggestions are analysed in order to develop a more refined product. Included in this next product are ideas and suggestions the contributors have passed on. To further insure that all relevant suggestions will be incorporated in the final edition, questionable items are clarified with those who brought them up.

The managerial linguist goes through several of these curricular development cycles. Included are meetings with members of line management who are most closely associated with the instructors interviewed. They must have the opportunity to offer suggestions, provide information, ask questions, etc. As a result they too will have a vested interest in the orientation course. Joint ownership is a potent motivating factor which enables one to accomplish meaningful objectives.

As soon as the text is in a reasonably complete form, it is assigned to the instructors of the orientation course. The instructor is familiarized with the procedures to be followed. Meetings, whose main goal is to set an atmosphere of flexibility, openness and cooperation, are scheduled. The appropriate people at these meetings include all members of the work group. All those present will have been intimately involved in the project. The result, a real team communicating in an ambiance of openness and mutuality of interest.

The "T-Group" approach is premised on quite different basic assumptions from the "Individual in Isolation" approach (Chart). There is a shift in emphasis from the need identified by a staff member to the need identified by the personnel around whom training is to be developed. The T-Group approach contains the ingredients for developing really effective training of even the poorly motivated. Finally, this approach recognizes that a manual, a handbook, a text, or a course which has been created by all members of a work group is acceptable to and owned by all, merely becomes the needed core around which learning is concentrated.

4.3 Systems Approach

In the final report of the 1968 Southeast Asia Language training programs conducted by the DLI team, a statement concerning English Language Training Programs managed by Armed Forces civilian personnel officers in Thailand read as follows: "Because of insufficient lead time, training of large numbers of civilian labor forces and lack of training expertise on the part of the Civilian Personnel Officers, the following conditions exist: A mixture of American Language Courses locally developed, and commercial course materials are being utilized; the standard of instructions is varied; the purchasing of language laboratory facilities is achieved without the technical assistance of DLI resulting in a loss of savings and equipment which does not meet DLI specifications. Poor organization of the curriculum is due to lack of instruction, master schedules, and daily lesson plans. Testing and teacher training programs are virtually non-existant. There has been no attempt to utilize DLI locally available expertise for technical assistance"[5].

The United States Army Civilian Personnel Office production of Thai civilian graduates is estimated at 200 annually. The U.S. Air Force CPO indicated that plans were being developed to train an additional 1700 civilian Thai employees to replace an equal number of U.S. Air Forcepersonnel who will be phased out in the near future[6].

The systems approach then asks what model can the managerial linguist construct which would have greatest utility as a tool for analysis and for defining relationships between problems of staff competence as well as the most significant methods for correction. What should be the managerial linguist's response to a field problem as described in the DLI team report? There exists a situation with insufficient lead time for training or for staff organizational and development functions.

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5) This situation has since been resolved through proper remedial action.

6) "Final Report of the 1968 Southeast Asia Language Training Programs," Headquarters, Defense Language Institute, Washington, D. C.

The description is of an existing situation where a present functioning program is inadequate due to the size and rapidity of trainee build-up. Add to this fact that American personnel have been called upon to fulfill obligations with which they were not familiar and responsibilities for which they were not adequately prepared. Finally, one must recognize that there exists an indigenous population whose English language level is limited and whose office skills are inadequate.

The managerial linguist takes the position that this program problem can be best accomplished through a systems approach. The term system in its general application denotes an inter-relationship of organically associated parts. Thus systems techniques are ways of solving problems, of getting work done, of establishing goals and priorities, of analysing and giving order to things through identifying or designing components of the whole and determining how they work or how they might work together. The managerial linguist's role is that of the systems analyst. In designing a learning model he must consider how the students are to be changed by learning experience to which the model will expose them.

Human resources are the most critical of the several elements in a total organizational system when a program to improve the operational performance and effectiveness of an organization is being designed. It follows then, that in developing a system, emphasis must be concentrated on a broad scale integrated program of staff development and training.

The matrix of the model for a systems approach, Curricular Organizational Grid (Chart), differs from the managerial grid.

	Knowledge and Skills	Organizational Identification and Relationships	Cross-Cultural Sensitivity and Adaptiveness
Synchronic Description			
Pattern Application			
Para-Curriculum Application			
Redefinition			

Curricular Organizational Grid

The managerial grid provides a useful view of a variety of managerial styles based on two major variables, the concern for production and concern for people, whereas the curricular organization grid provides a useful view of curricular organizational performance based on goals and inter-relationships.

Those categories along the top of the matrix highlight some important activities designed to improve the way people function in a work system. They also represent objectives amenable to intensive training and general staff development work.

There is no question that improving the knowledge and skills (Column 1, Chart) of participants is a critical element in increasing organizational effectiveness, but matters of organizational identification and relationships are equally critical. The role of participants in an organization can be measured both in terms of factual and effective dimensions. It is well known that an individual will be a more effective participant in the work of an organization if he understands its goals, policies, and programs, and feels a positive attachment to them. A loyal participant in the organization will be he who feels that he is contributing to the success of the mission (Column 2, Chart).

The last column on the Chart represents a measurement in terms of cross-cultural confrontation and all the attendant potentialities for misunderstanding and conflict. It is of vital importance that all participants become sensitive to the possibilities for conflict or misunderstanding in staff relations growing out of a breakdown in cross-cultural communication and develop sets of adaptive responses for the resolution of such conflicts.

The vertical axis in the matrix distinguishes the major functions and means of working toward accomplishment of the objectives.

The first column called Synchronic Description represents the analytical diagnostic and modification functions. The workability of this approach depends upon a careful investigation with the following aims: to determine the major needs and important problems of the organization, to identify the relationship between the problems and possible alternate solutions, and finally, to formulate a blue print for action.

The first steps lead to the formulation of an outline of scaled and carefully articulated training experiences. The particular combination or types of exercises will vary depending upon the particular problems, circumstances and other factors identified in the analysis.

Para-curricular activities are defined as exercises which highlight good communication practices and reinforce the importance of continuous training, personal growth and development.

The final element is provision for continuing evaluation, feedback and improvement of design and program activities.

The case histories described dramatically illustrate that in the solution of the complex problems one encounters in large language training programs, the managerial linguist must approach every problem eclectically. He must be flexible enough to be able to extrapolate the proper approach from all theories.

5.0 Conclusion

The concept of the managerial linguist is not that of a static specific position, but rather a role, a dynamic posture assumeable at any applicable level within the work system. The hierarchical levels may then be variously located at the operational, middle and upper echelons, as the need arises.

In this theoretical hierarchy, the teacher may assume the role of managerial linguist at the operational echelon, the course developer may assume the role of managerial linguist at the middle echelon, and finally, the administrator may assume the role of the managerial linguist at the upper echelon.

Regardless of echelon, if the managerial linguist applies the pertinent strategies of modern management practices to the science of linguistics, the result will be a more meaningful and manageable language training program.

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Résumé

Echelons de la "Linguistique Gestionnaire"

Ce papier a pour but de démontrer que l'application des théories de la gestion (du "management") moderne à la linguistique appliquée amènera un programme d'enseignement de langues plus efficace, plus effectif et plus productif.

L'isolement linguistique des Etats-Unis cessa le 7 décembre 1941. Les forces armées des US se rendirent compte que des nombres énormes de jeunes Américains seraient bientôt répandus partout dans le monde, et qu'ils auraient besoin d'un programme d'enseignement de langues. Un programme fut trouvé: "The Intensive Language Program", établi au début de l'an 1941, qui avait quatre principes fondamentaux:

1. Une langue doit être parlée, non seulement écrite.
2. Enseignez la langue elle-même, non pas des faits au sujet de la langue.
3. Une langue consiste en ce que disent ceux qui la parlent comme langue maternelle, non pas en ce que quelqu'un croit qu'ils devraient dire.
4. Les langues sont différentes l'une de l'autre. C'est à dire que l'on ne peut pas imposer par symétrie une nomenclature artificielle et machinée sur les structures de langues dans lesquelles ces structures n'existent simplement pas.

Les cours construits d'après ce programme étaient efficaces du point de vue opérationnel, mais ne satisfaisaient pas les traditionalistes. Finalement les deux côtés s'accommodèrent, et il existe aujourd'hui plusieurs subdivisions résultant d'une fusion avec d'autres disciplines. L'une de ces subdivisions est la Linguistique dite "managerial" en anglais, soit "gestionnaire", résultant de la combinaison des techniques modernes de gestion avec de l'expertise linguistique.

L'auteur décrit les différentes approches à la théorie de la gestion pour identifier les zones interpénétrantes qui se développent entre les deux disciplines – Linguistique et Gestion. Puis il décrit le comportement du linguiste gestionnaire en appliquant les stratégies basées sur la gestion moderne à un programme d'enseignement de langues.

Il conclut en disant que le linguiste gestionnaire n'occupe pas une position statique particulière, mais que, plutôt, elle joue un rôle à n'importe quel niveau au sein du système de travail. Les niveaux hiérarchiques peuvent se placer au besoin aux échelons opérationnel, moyen ou supérieur. Dans cette hiérarchie théorique, le maître peut jouer le rôle de linguiste gestionnaire à l'échelon opérationnel, celui qui développe les cours à l'échelon moyen, et l'administrateur à l'échelon supérieur.

Quel que soit l'échelon, si le linguiste gestionnaire applique les pratiques de la gestion moderne à la science de la linguistique, il en résultera un programme d'enseignement de langues plus significatif et plus praticable.

Une bibliographie étendue suit l'article.

Evaluation of Language Training Objectives

by
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A. Introduction

This paper presents some of the aspects to be considered in the evaluation of the effectiveness, efficiency, and validity of language training objectives. First, a discussion is made on the classification of objectives for evaluation purposes. Objectives when viewed in terms of learning outcomes are classified according to priority as core, supporting, and supplementary; according to levels as mission-stated and SOLOs*); according to their tangibility as less and highly tangible; and according to the degree to which they are operative as explicit and implicit. The four constituent elements common to these objectives are (1) the stimulus, (2) the description of the behavior, (3) the criterion of acceptable performance, and (4) the conditions of operation.

The paper discusses briefly the differences between measurement and evaluation. The purpose of measurement is to make quantitative description which serves as an aid to the evaluation process. Three different aspects in the evaluation of objectives are brought out. They are (1) the clarity in stating the objectives, (2) the validity of the objectives, and (3) the efficiency in achieving the objectives.

A sample of an evaluation plan showing the use of measurement technique for determining the specific learning outcomes is illustrated. This paper concludes by stating how evaluation of course objectives will help to improve the Defense Language Institute training program.

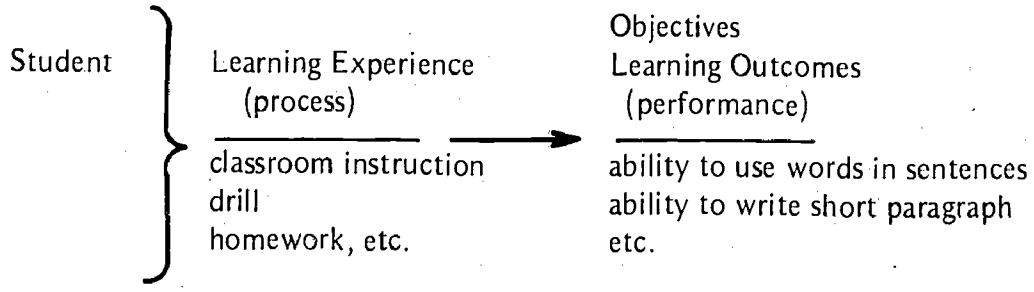
B. Definition of Objectives

An objective is an intent written in statement form which describes proposed changes in a student. It is a statement of what the student is to be like when he has successfully completed a learning experience. The statement of objectives must have measurable attributes – or at least observable – otherwise it is impossible to determine whether the language training program is meeting the objectives. When clearly defined goals are lacking, it is impossible to evaluate either the students or the course efficiently, and there is no sound basis for selecting appropriate materials, content, or instructional methods.

*) Statement Of Learning Outcomes (SOLOs)

In other words, objectives are goals toward which students progress. They are the end results of learning, preferably stated in behavioral terms. In our case, it is in terms of language skills and proficiency. When we view objectives in terms of learning outcomes, it is important to keep in mind that we are concerned with the products of learning rather than the process of learning. Chart I shows the relationship of objectives (performance) to learning experiences (process) designed to develop desired terminal behavior:

Chart 1. Relationship of Objectives to Processes

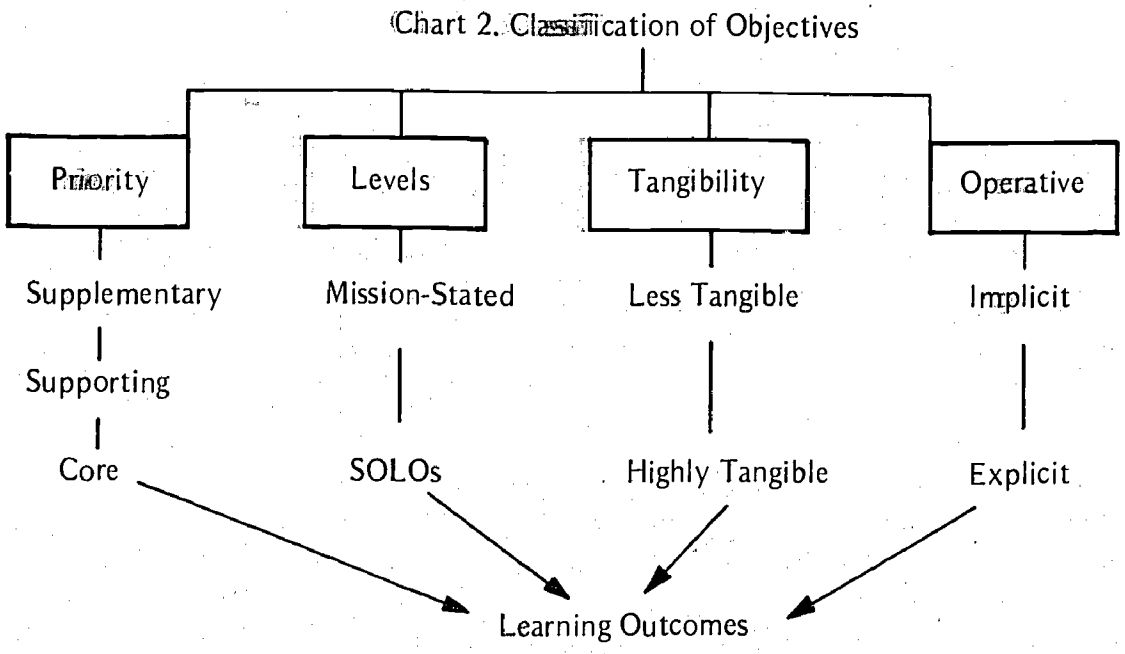


The content is placed under process because it is the vehicle through which objectives are attained. The objectives describe what the student is expected to be like at the end of instruction rather than the means that will be used to get him there. Note that an objective that is stated in terms of what the instructor will do can be completed perfectly with no effect on the student, e.g., "The instructor will demonstrate..." "The instructor will explain..." etc.

C. Classification of Objectives

When objectives are viewed as learning outcomes, they can be classified along a number of dimensions. See Chart 2.

Chart 2. Classification of Objectives



1. Classification by priority.

   a. Core objectives are essential terminal behaviors for all students. These include the core vocabulary, some of the grammatical structures, essential phonological skills, etc. The Elementary core list of the American Language Course gives approximately 800 essential words. The Intermediate core list has about 1400 essential words.

   b. Supporting objectives are the terminal behaviors which are, in addition to the core, highly desirable objectives. They include the enabling objectives.

   c. Supplementary objectives are primarily for the fast learners. They may include additional reading materials or supplementary homework.

2. Classification according to levels.

   a. Mission statements of the Defense Language Institute, English Language Branch (DLIEL) are stated in very general terms, such as "To teach English to allied military personnel thus enabling them to complete technical training at other U.S. military installations." They give guidance for setting the learning objectives.

   b. SOLOs are specific Statements Of Learning Outcome. Example: The student will say the ordinal numbers *first* through *thirty-first* correctly and intelligibly in responding to the question form "What is the date today?" by using form "Today is the__of September."

3. Classification in terms of their tangibility.

   a. Highly tangible objectives are found in the area of language skills and knowledge. Example: The objective of the English Language Training Program is to provide the language skills in understanding, speaking, reading, and writing of English with a minimum of grammatical explanations and without translation. Learning outcomes in these areas are easily identified and capable of the most direct measurement.

   b. Less tangible objectives are those in the realm of attitude, adjustment, and interests. Example: One of the missions of the Defense Language Institute, English Language Branch is to conduct an orientation and information program for foreign military personnel to acquaint them with the culture, customs, and goals of the U.S. Learning outcomes in these less tangible areas are more difficult to identify and evaluate. The importance placed recently on these objectives may justify an additional effort in the evaluation program. Improvement in the accomplishment of the entire school mission is more likely to result from efforts to identify and evaluate all important outcomes of instruction and information orientation than from attempts to improve evaluation instruments only in highly tangible areas.

4. Classification in terms of degree to which they are operative. Objectives may be explicit or implicit. The explicit or stated objectives commonly fail to contribute to the whole learning process because of inadequate attention to, or improper choice of measurement techniques used. The type of measurement devices certainly influence students as to how and what they learn. We should be able to recognize and remove the discrepancy between the stated objectives and implicit objectives if we are to improve the instruction and provide optimal learning conditions. This is one of the important ways in which improved

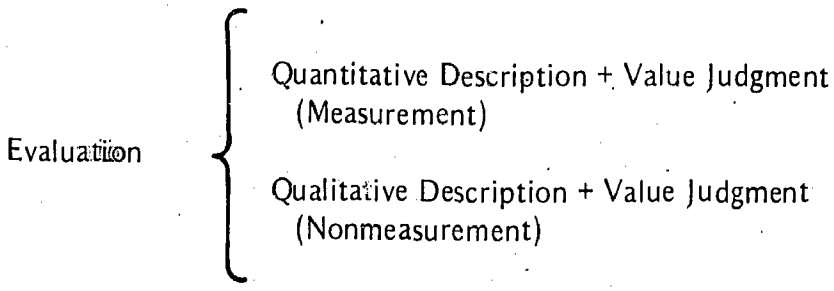
measurement procedures can contribute to improved learning. By stating objectives clearly, in terms of student behavior, and by constructing measurement instruments that actually measure these changes, it is possible to translate stated objectives into functional goals which guide and direct student learning.

D. Elements of Objectives

What are the constituent elements that are common to these objectives? There are 4 constituent elements, according to Dr. Francis A. Cartier, Chief, Development Division, DLI, English Language Branch. They are (1) the description of the situation or the stimulus that elicits the behavior, (2) the description of the behavior, (3) allowable tolerances in the behavior, and (4) conditions of operation. The statements of objectives will define student behavior more sharply if they contain words describing the situation under which the student will be expected to show his achievement of the objectives. The terminal behavior should identify and name the observable performance that will be accepted as evidence that the student has achieved the objectives. Example: Given 50 oral questions, the learner will be able to answer them correctly. We can increase the ability of an objective to communicate by telling the student how well we want him to be able to do it. We can do this by describing the criterion of acceptable performance. Example: Given 50 oral questions, the student will be able to answer at least 90% of them correctly. If we can specify at least the minimum acceptable performance for each objective, we will have a performance standard against which to measure student achievement. Finally, the statement should describe the important conditions under which the student will be expected to demonstrate his competence. For example: Given 50 oral questions from a prerecorded tape, the learner will be able to answer at least 90 % of the questions correctly within a period of 25 minutes.

Thus in the task of stating objectives, we must keep in mind that we are making a list of expected outcomes of teaching-learning situations. We are not identifying subject-matter content but the reaction students are to make to this content. We are not listing the learning experiences of the students, but the changes in their behavior as a result of these experiences. We are not describing what we intend to do during instruction, but are making a list of the expected results from this instruction. We can now see that objectives encompass a variety of Learning Outcomes. Evaluation must include a variety of measurement procedures. The main point in a sound evaluation system is to check to see if the measurement procedures are related as directly as possible to the specific learning outcomes. Thus measurement becomes an integral part of the teaching-learning process. It must be a continuous process which uses a variety of techniques that are related to the objectives of the language training program. Measurement and evaluation have different meanings. Measurement may be defined as a systematic process of determining the extent to which objectives are achieved. Evaluation is a much more comprehensive term than measurement. Evaluation includes both the quantitative description of the terminal behavior plus the value judgments concerning the desirability of these two aspects. Measurement is limited only to the quantitative information of student behavior. It does not include qualitative description nor does it employ judgment concerning the worth or value of the terminal behavior measured. Look at Chart 3 which shows the relationship between measurement and evaluation.

Chart 3. Relationship Between Measurement and Evaluation



Evaluation based on qualitative description is not as precise as the one based on measurement and statistics. How successful a given evaluation will be depends upon the validity, reliability, and skillful utilization of the measuring instruments, (i.e., the data upon which the value judgment is based), and upon the knowledge, insight, and impartial judgment of the evaluator doing the appraisement of the facts. Measurement has the purpose of making precise description and serves as an aid to the evaluation process.

E. Aspects of Evaluation

There are at least three different aspects in the evaluation of objectives.

1. The clarity in stating the objectives
2. The validity and effectiveness
3. The efficiency in achieving the objectives.

1. Clarity of statement. Is the objective stated in terms of behavior of the student? Is the statement of objectives presented in a precise language so that it means the same to everyone whether he is a student, an instructor, a course writer, a test developer, or an evaluator? If the statement contains ambiguity, we say that it has low reliability in conveying meaning. If the statement is interpreted the same way by everyone, we say it has high reliability in conveying meaning.

2. The validity of the objectives. Are the specific objectives appropriate to the mission statement of the school? Are the objectives appropriate to the job requirements? The determination of its validity and effectiveness requires content analysis by comparing the objectives with the actual job. When the objectives are appropriate to the job requirements, we can say that the objectives are valid. The relevance of the objectives must undergo periodic checks because job requirements change. New tools and new weapons systems become available. New methods and techniques are introduced, and new information must be learned. This can be done by conducting field evaluation, such as interviewing graduates and their instructors and supervisors, and sending out questionnaires. When we take action to make sure that our course objectives correspond to the requirements of the job, and we act to cause each student to reach these objectives, we can be sure of getting a more effective course.

3. The efficiency in achieving the objectives. We are interested in knowing how well the students have achieved each of the objectives. For the core objectives a criterion-type test is recommended. For the supporting objectives the sampling-type test may be the only

practical test since there are so many of them. We are also interested in knowing the length of training so we can calculate the training cost. We want to reduce the cost of training by cutting down the length of training time and still maintain the high standards.

The final step in the evaluation procedure is to develop measurement instruments which will provide the most direct evidence concerning the attainment of each specific learning outcome. This is one of the best ways to be assured that we are evaluating student achievement toward the course objectives.

The process of relating evaluation techniques to specific learning outcomes is mainly one of logical analysis and judgment. This process can be facilitated by the use of a systematic evaluation plan. This plan should include a list of the desired learning outcomes and the measurement techniques to be used in evaluating progress toward them. Chart 4 is a sample evaluation plan which shows the general objectives, specific learning outcomes, measurement techniques and the evaluation checklist.

Chart 4. Evaluation Plan

	A General Objective	B Specific Learning Outcome	C Measurement Technique	D Evaluation Checklist
1.	Student is able to write sentences	Uses vocabulary in context	Writing Test	1. Are the measurement devices appropriate?
2.	Student is able to recognize meaning	Recognizes meaning of specific terms	Objective Test	2. Are the measurement devices valid, reliable, comprehensive, and economical?
3.	Student is able to speak at the S-3 level	Makes a one-minute talk	Rating Scale	3. Etc.

This chart shows the importance of a clear statement of objectives and learning outcomes in selecting the appropriate measurement technique. When the learning outcomes are stated in terms of student behavior, they not only show what is to be evaluated but also indicate how to evaluate them. For example, No. 1, General Objective: "Student is able to write sentences." Specific Learning Outcome: "Uses core vocabulary in context" makes it clear what type of measurement technique should be used. It shows that the student must write the vocabulary in context. Therefore, a writing test may be the most adequate technique of measurement. An objective test item, such as a multiple-choice, where the student must

recognize the meaning would be inadequate for measuring this learning outcome. But for the second general objective where the student must be able to recognize meaning, an objective test would probably be the best type of measurement device. And for the third general objective where the student must be able to speak at the S-3 level, a rating scale is probably the best. Under Column D is the evaluation checklist. Some of the main points to consider are (1) Are the measurement devices appropriate for testing the achievement of specific learning outcomes? (2) Are the measurement instruments valid, reliable, comprehensive, and economical? (3) Are the students attaining the course objectives in the prescribed period of time? (4) Are the objectives adequate to enable graduates to succeed in the new job for which they have prepared themselves? We can go on and list many more. We should work out a comprehensive checklist to aid in evaluating all the objectives.

Finally, how will evaluation of course objectives help to improve the Defense Language Institute language training program? Continuous evaluation of course objectives will help to improve the language training program by ensuring that the objectives are valid and can be used by course writers, test developers, and instructors without ambiguity. It will ensure that course objectives are in logical order, and that there are no missing steps. It will focus the attention of the staff and the faculty on what the students will be taught and on what they will be tested. As an end result, the evaluation of course objectives will ensure that the validity of the objectives and the text material will be maintained, and the language training will be conducted as efficiently as possible.

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Résumé

Evaluation des objectifs de l'enseignement de langues

Ce papier présente quelques-uns des aspects à considérer en évaluant l'efficacité, le rendement et la validité des objectifs de l'enseignement de langues.

D'abord, on étudie la classification d'objectifs dans le but de leur évaluation. Les objectifs, quand on les etudie en fonction des résultats de l'action d'apprendre, se classent selon l'ordre de priorité d'après les trois catégories: fondamentaux, d'appui, supplémentaires; selon le niveau comme: énoncé général de mission ou énoncé de résultat voulu; selon leur tangibilité: moins tangible ou très tangible; et selon le degré auquel ils fonctionnent de façon explicite ou implicite. Les quatre éléments communs à ces objectifs sont: 1. le stimulus, 2. la description du comportement, 3. le critère du rendement admissible et 4. les conditions de fonctionnement.

Le papier traite brièvement des différences entre le mesurage et l'évaluation. Le but du mesurage est de faire une description quantitative qui sert d'aide au processus d'évaluation. Trois différents aspects de l'évaluation d'objectifs sont mis en relief: 1. la clarté dans l'énoncé des objectifs, 2. la validité des objectifs, et 3. l'efficacité en atteignant les objectifs.

A titre d'exemple, l'échantillon d'un plan d'évaluation est apporté pour montrer l'utilisation de techniques de mesurage pour déterminer les résultats de l'action d'apprendre. Le papier termine en expliquant comment l'évaluation d'objectifs de stages aidera l'amélioration des programmes d'enseignement du Defense Language Institute.